

# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, OCTOBER 6, 1881.

## The Week.

It is now said to be President Arthur's intention not to avail himself of the extra session of the Senate for the appointment of a new Cabinet, but to delay the formation of the latter until Congress meets in regular session, two months hence. The President thinks that the Cabinet Ministers now in office should be kept there to make the annual reports on the operations of their respective departments, and that in the mean time he will have better opportunities for ascertaining the current of popular sentiment as to what his administration should be. If this report is correct, the President will indeed have the benefit of the present Cabinet Ministers' reports on the public business in a retrospective sense, and to that extent they may serve him in getting up his own message to Congress. But if shortly after the meeting of Congress the present Cabinet is to go out, its members can aid him but little in shaping the prospective features of his message. In laying down his policy for the future it would evidently be of advantage to him to have his future constitutional advisers at his elbow.

Mr. George S. Boutwell has been interviewed about the new President, and has delivered some very Delphic opinions thereupon. He said by way of eulogy that "he had known the President for twenty years, and that he believed he would surround himself with Republicans, and that he would give the country a Republican Administration." Considering the immense variety of Republicans that exists, saying the President will surround himself with Republicans and give us a Republican Administration is about as reassuring as saying that he will surround himself with white males and give us a white male administration. General Grant surrounded himself with Republicans and gave us a Republican Administration, but that did not prevent the loss of sixteen Northern States to the party after six years' trial of his system. Mr. Boutwell also said "he had heard that people were afraid that Mr. Conkling would be the power behind the throne," but that "he did not know why the public should be afraid of Mr. Conkling." This shows either that Mr. Boutwell has a fellow-feeling with Mr. Conkling or does not read the newspapers. In either case he is disqualified for forming an opinion on the reasonableness of the popular fear of Mr. Conkling. He says he believes that Mr. Conkling will not be "a disturbing element in public or private life," and affirms, apparently as a reason for this belief, that "there are many worse men than he." But this only shows that Mr. Boutwell does not either observe or reason closely. Mr. Conkling is already and has long been a disturbing element, in public life at least. Public disturbance is his specialty. Moreover, the greater badness of other men cannot affect his

disturbing powers and tendencies. You might as well say that he will not make a disturbance because there are many men better than he is.

There has been one feature in the primary meetings which have just been held in this State which merits the serious attention both of those who like the present nominating system and those who do not. The primary meeting, like all other political assemblages, is not a debating club, but a contrivance for getting at the will of the majority, with a view to the action known as the appointment of delegates. Its utility rests wholly on the assumption that the will of the majority can be ascertained by it, and that when ascertained it will be obeyed. Destroy this assumption and the primary is of no more political value than a crowd in a room collected through curiosity. Now, as a matter of fact—and we do not here propose to throw the blame of it on any one in particular—in a very large proportion of the primaries just held the will of the majority was either not ascertained or was not ascertainable, or when ascertained was disregarded by the minority. The reason the minority disregarded it in most of these instances was its belief that the committee which organizes the State Convention would also disregard it, or would, in other words, judge of the qualification of delegates by some other test than that furnished by the votes of the primary. This, or something like this, has often been done before now, both by Congress and by committees of conventions, but then it has never been done in more than one or two cases at a time, so that it has always been possible to regard it as one of the small defects or vices from which no system is wholly free, and about which, as the saying is, the law does not trouble itself.

If it should now be done, however, on a scale sufficiently large to change the composition of the Convention for the benefit of the faction to which the organizing committee belongs, it will show that the primary has as an institution passed distinctly into a more advanced, and, indeed, we may say, the last possible stage of decrepitude. This again we may say without throwing any blame on either side in particular. For if the Conkling bolting delegations are all admitted, or even admitted in the great majority of cases, it will show either that the minority has successfully resisted the will of the majority, or that the majority has been abusing its power and disregarding law and right on an unprecedented scale. Primaries which send up two contesting delegations are clearly useless, because if in the greater number or any large number of cases the committee of the Convention has to decide who are entitled to the seats, it might better select the delegates in the first instance, and save the scandal and tumult and demoralization of caucuses which can neither agree nor determine on which side the majority lies. There is only one mode of reform and regeneration for the primary, and that is to com-

pose it of persons who are sufficiently agreed about great political ideas to make the choice of the delegates who are to represent them a matter of secondary importance, and make it possible, therefore, to satisfy the minority with any delegates whom the majority decide to elect. At present the election of delegates is entered on, not as if they were simply to labor for the promotion of certain ideas, but as if they were to be armed with absolute discretion in the distribution of a sum of money, and were sure to give none except to their own friends. In this state of things there is no room for compromise. If A cannot get B elected, he gets nothing whatever out of the bag, and it is therefore his interest to dispute the election by every means in his power. Worse off than it makes him he cannot be, and any change may benefit him.

The Pennsylvania Democrats have drawn up a good old-fashioned platform which must command the cordial concurrence of every friend of virtue. No pulpit in the country has ever spoken out more plainly against evil in all its Protean disguises. For instance, it condemns any attempt to overthrow the Constitution of the United States, and also "revolutionary changes tending to consolidation or empire"; also the "use of the public money for any purpose but the support of the Government"—a fact of which those who are appropriating it for their private needs will do well to take note. It also sets its face against legislation "which despoils labor to build up monopoly." What we like best in the platform is, however, the plan of putting an end to frauds and abuses of all descriptions in the management of the various departments of the Federal Government. Many people have, doubtless, fancied that this might be brought about by one or two prosecutions, or a few removals of lax officials, or some improvements in bookkeeping. The Pennsylvania Democrats do not, however, take any such namby-pamby view of the situation. They say that no effective reform can be brought about without "a sweeping change." What they mean by "a sweeping change" they explain by declaring that "sincere civil-service reform will only begin with the return of the Jeffersonian tests for officeholders of honesty, capability, and faithfulness to the Constitution."

What puzzles one about this is that the Pennsylvania Democrats should speak of this return as if it were a difficult thing to bring about, or as if it were sure to encounter violent opposition from the wicked and designing. We assure them solemnly that, after many years of close attention to the difficulties in the way of civil-service reform, we have never encountered a single enemy of, or heard one word of hostility to, the "Jeffersonian tests." As far as our observation has gone, no test of any description has ever in any age or country commanded so much approval from persons of all classes and conditions and parties. Even Messrs. Conkling

and Platt are, or at least were, not very long ago, heartily in favor of it. Indeed, the celebrated six rules for the purification of the civil service, which they drew up, and got adopted by the State Convention in 1877, were merely a series of commendations of the Jeffersonian plan. We have reason to believe, too, that even if the present system of appointment through Congressional nomination be kept up, there will be no difficulty in getting Congressmen to enforce these tests. In fact, they always have enforced them. We believe the surviving Congressmen of the last twenty years are prepared to declare with one voice that they have never nominated any one to office who was not "honest, capable, and faithful to the Constitution."

The public debt was diminished by \$17,483,641 during September, making the total reduction for the current fiscal year, which began July 1, last, \$41,742,866. The cash in the Treasury at the end of September was \$250,686,547, but of this all is chargeable to outstanding obligations except \$160,024,648. At the close of August the total cash in the Treasury was \$240,498,788, of which the sum of \$150,468,575 had no obligations outstanding against it. In the statement of assets and liabilities of the Treasury on October 1 and September 1 the principal changes are a decrease during September of \$5,736,711 in the gold coin and an increase of \$10,602,533 in the gold bullion, a decrease of about \$2,000,000 in the legal-tender notes, and an increase of about \$1,200,000 in the amount of public money deposited with national banks. The silver assets show slight changes during the month. On the side of liabilities the Treasurer's general account exhibits an increase of about \$10,000,000. There were about \$6,500,000 more silver certificates outstanding at the close of the month than at the beginning, while the old gold certificates outstanding were reduced about \$150,000. The amount of interest due and unpaid increased about \$4,200,000 during the month, and the called bonds and interest on September 30 are charged at \$17,832,841, against \$10,591,180 at the beginning of the month.

Altogether the statement is in a general way what might have been expected from a condition in which the scale of taxation is in many respects kept up to the war standard, and the Government is in the process of completing operations by which the annual interest charge on its debt is reduced. A continuance of revenues largely in excess of the Government's expenses will at no distant day force a consideration of the question whether taxation should not be reduced, at least in the proportion that the interest charge on the public debt has been diminished. There is much to be said on either side of this question. Unfortunately there is little reason for expecting that, if the present standard of taxation is to be kept up, any part of the surplus revenues of the Government will be devoted to extinguishing that form of the public debt which is circulated as money and clothed with its attributes—the legal-tender notes. This part of the public debt has given no trouble of late years, but it is by no means unlikely to do so in the

future. The Treasury has coin enough in its vaults to pay nearly half of this debt; if it should pay one-tenth of it each year it would be advancing the finances of the country to a sound condition faster than it now is. So far as the money market is concerned, the result of such payment would simply be the exchange of one form of lawful money not now in the market, but in the Treasury vaults, for another kind which is now in the market.

The absorption of money by the Treasury, and the shipments of currency to the interior, were sufficient to reduce the reserve of the New York banks by \$4,218,000 during the last week, and to leave them \$2,756,025 short of a 25 per cent. reserve. The banks generally contracted their loans, and the result was that during the greater part of the week money was hard to get at 6 per cent. About \$830,000 foreign gold arrived during the week and the rates for bills on London declined, but not sufficiently to warrant free importations of gold. The Treasury succeeded in buying at par and accrued interest \$2,000,000 of the 6 per cent. bonds which have been extended at 3½ per cent.; in fact, \$6,700,000 were offered at this price. At the Stock Exchange it was a week of depression for all kinds of securities, United States bonds having fallen ¼@½, railroad bonds ¼@5½ per cent., and railroad stocks 1¼@6½ per cent. for the more important ones. The contest between the managers of the rival trunk-line railroads, so far from having been drawn to a conclusion, as was generally expected, has been embittered by a newspaper discussion between Mr. Garrett and Mr. Vanderbilt, in which each charges the other with bad faith, and which shows a feeling anything but favorable for an early settlement. General trade continues active, except where it is interfered with by the speculation which is running riot at the Produce and Cotton Exchanges of the country.

Within ten months eight ocean-going steamships have broken a shaft: the *Batavia*, the *Frisia*, the *Steinmann*, the *Persian Monarch*, the *Severn*, the *Catalonia*, the *Tomsah*, and the *Rochester*. Upon the trial trip of the new Cunard steamer *Servia*, a flaw was discovered in her shaft and her first voyage was postponed. We might "point with pride" to the fact that none of these shafts was of American manufacture, but for the other fact that we escape such accidents by not building or owning ocean-going steamships. Mr. John Roach no doubt will find in these cases of imperfect machinery fresh arguments against allowing our people to buy foreign-built vessels. But he can do better than to waste his time in review articles and interviews to this effect. Let him go to work and show that he can build better and cheaper ships than the British—ships which will not break their shafts and at the same time are no dearer. Until he does this shipowners will not buy of him, despite the navigation laws.

Mr. George Bliss, counsel for the Government in the Star-route cases, gives the gratifying assurance that the prosecution of Brady and his associates, against whom informations

have been filed, will be pushed with all practicable speed. He promises further, while in this city, to "devote himself to the evidence in the Dorsey case," work which "can be done here as well as in Washington." Probably Mr. Bliss does not overrate the labor and difficulty involved in these cases when he says that "the general public has no conception" of it. "Investigations have to be made all over the country, while the records of the Post-Office Department have to be thoroughly sifted." There is this consolatory thought, that if the laborious search of the prosecuting officers must extend over so vast a surface, it has been proportionately difficult for the thieves to cover their tracks, and throughout these wide ramifications of fraud convincing evidence must be found. While, therefore, we are assured that "nobody is to be spared," we have reason to hope that somebody will be convicted.

Mr. Cyrus W. Field gives rather a startling account of the legal expenses of the Manhattan Company. When he began to overhaul the accounts after the appointment of receivers he was surprised to find how rapidly all expenses increased in June and July last, but on further examination found it was the law bills which accounted for it. In June these amounted to over \$23,000, and in July to over \$43,000, and in the preceding year to \$150,000. He says he has a complete list of the recipients of this money and means to "prosecute" every one of them, but will not publish their names till the cases come into court. But how he will bring a lawyer to justice for making a high charge and receiving the money from his client, it is hard to see. It will be the more difficult in this case because his brother's firm is one of the counsel, if not the leading counsel, of the Company, and very active in the conduct of its litigation. It may be that the absence of the head of the firm in Europe may exempt him from responsibility for these recent bills, but he ought to have left instructions with his partners to be easy with the Manhattan Company.

The drafting of a Land Bill by the Scotch Chamber of Agriculture, which the London *Times* pronounces the most far-reaching measure on the land question ever submitted to Parliament, going further, we presume, than the Irish Land Bill, is rather hard on the Duke of Argyll. He left the Gladstone Ministry in horror over the Irish Land Bill, and in his attack on the bill in the House of Lords treated the Irish demands as something outrageous and not to be justified either by the plea that the Irish had been unjustly treated in bygone days, or that they were Celts. Life and property, he said, had in past days been very insecure in Scotland, but no one thought this an excuse in Scotland for now despoiling landlords of their property. Then, as to the argument that the Irish were Celts, and Celts were queer and must have their way, he said he was a Celt himself, and yet felt none of the turbulent desires of the Land Leaguers. It must, therefore, be rather mortifying for him to find his own hard-headed Scotch farmers prepared to go further than the Irishmen. They will not hough cattle, or boycott their landlords, but they will undoubt-



edly make themselves sufficiently formidable to the Government to get their bill passed, and, what is more, the Duke will have to submit to seeing the accursed thing in operation on his own estates. It is becoming more and more clear, both in England and Scotland, that, as Mr. John Stuart Mill said, it is not Irish ideas about property in land which are peculiar, but English ideas. The Irish are on this subject in the main stream of human tradition; it is the English who have gone up a little side-creek.

The attempt to break up the cotton corner in Liverpool, by a combination among the Lancashire spinners to stop their mills for a week, is said by the latest advices to have broken down. It was, considering the hardship it would inflict on the operatives, a very severe remedy. Now comes the *Pall Mall Gazette* and says it would have been an outrageous remedy, because the corner made by the Liverpool speculators was, in large part at least, made feasible by the speculations earlier in the season, by spinners among others, for a fall in the autumn. That is to say, the spinners have been largely "selling short" through the summer, and the Liverpool speculators, finding it out, made their corner and are now extracting "differences" from them in a manner which makes them "squel" and threaten to stop working their mills. The moral of it all is that spinners should not speculate, but should quietly and soberly buy their supplies as they want them, paying for them in cash, and being content with the station of life to which it has pleased Providence to call them. But we presume that neither religion, morality, nor law will ever prevent a man's speculating in the raw material of his trade, if he has either the money or the credit to do it with. If he succeeds, it is very hard to avoid calling it prudence or sagacity. But such speculation seems legitimate only when it consists in buying in the expectation of a rise; in selling for a fall a manufacturer goes undisguisedly out of his sphere.

One of the most startling of the recent incidents in the Papal troubles in Rome is what may be called the apostasy of Count Campobello, one of the canons of St. Peter's, and a member of an old and noble family at Spoleto. He has written to Cardinal Borromeo, telling him that he thought of leaving the Church in the time of Pius the Ninth, but refrained in the belief that a better time for the Church and for the country would come after he was gone. He has, however, been disappointed. The new Pope he finds as bad as the old one. He thinks that the rupture between the Church and State which exists and grows wider is maintained by the obstinacy of the Pope, and he himself will not consent to belong any longer to an institution which "requires its ministers to form a kind of Hindoo caste in the midst of modern society," and which makes it impossible for him to be at the same time a good Catholic and a good Italian. He confesses that in addition to this he is sick of a canon's life, which is almost entirely passed, he says, "in uninterrupted religious exercises." Five or six hours passed every day in useless

religious ceremonies form either a "stupid idolatry or degrading idleness." Accordingly he abjures the Catholic religion, and, curiously enough, has joined the Methodists. We question much whether there is another Italian Methodist in existence. The Canon's conversion is made impressive by the fact, which does not seem to be questioned, that he has nothing to complain of personally, and is not, as our politicians say, "a sore-head."

The French are pursuing in Tunis precisely the same policy as that pursued by the British in Afghanistan, and almost under the same circumstances. That is, they are seizing a country the people of which detest them, in the name of a ruler who has no power, and who is utterly discredited by his subjection to them, and are treating all resistance to them as rebellion against him, and shooting every Arab whom they catch with arms in his hands, just as General Roberts shot the Afghans. But they have gone beyond the British in their contempt for the religious feelings of the natives. They have destroyed one much-venerated shrine because they thought it was a resort of "treasonable" persons, and carted away the saint's bones in a box to some other mosque, and thought they could make it all right by firing a salute over them and presenting arms when they went by. But the Arabs take no such light view of the matter. Their fanaticism has been raised to white heat, and they are butchering every Christian they can lay hands on. They have just burnt alive a large collection of Europeans of various nationalities sixty miles from Tunis, and are handling Ali, the Bey's son, who is well advanced on the road to Kairwan, the Holy City of the Arabs, so roughly that he proposes to retire unless he is greatly aided. Reinforcements have been sent him, and the grand advance on Kairwan is to be made from Zaghuan, under General Logerot, on the 12th if all goes well. But in the meantime all does not go well. A very large Arab force is said to be collecting on the flank of the column, and the frequency with which French detachments have to retreat for want of provisions and ammunition, after even small skirmishes, shows that the question of supplies is a serious one, and the march will be no promenade.

The huge proportions the enterprise is assuming is getting M. Roustan, the French Consul-General at Tunis, into serious trouble, and trouble, too, curiously like that which overtook Lord Lytton in India. Like Lord Lytton, he concocted the difficulty with the Bey, and negotiated the treaty with him, or rather made him swallow it, just as Lord Lytton made poor Yakub Khan become a friend and ally of Great Britain. Having then got himself into the place of supervisor of the Bey, or French Resident at the Bey's court, he assured the French public that all trouble was over. They have been rudely undeceived. They find work cut out for 100,000 men, a debt of unknown proportions looming up in the future, and the whole desert from Tripoli to Morocco rising in arms against them. The Parisian press, therefore, already begins to grumble very loudly, and

the public seems likely to be as sick of the whole business before long as they were of the march to Berlin after the fight at Reichshofen.

The Sultan has taken a step which is likely greatly to increase the complication of the situation in Egypt. He has sent a Commission of Inquiry to Cairo to investigate the cause of the recent troubles, to negotiate between the Khedive and the European Powers, and to find out why the Khedive has not before now gone himself to Constantinople to pay fealty to his Suzerain. He is said to have taken this step without the knowledge of his Ministers. It is, however, the logical outcome of the relations which are known to have existed between him and the Khedive ever since the deposition of Ismail. Tewfik had no sooner taken his father's place than he began to put himself under the Sultan's wing and try to get his advice and approval in the submissions he was making to the Europeans, and thus fortify himself with the Mussulman element among his own people. The Sultan was a little shy of him at first, but now the Pan-Islamic idea appears to have taken thorough hold of him, and he is tickled with the idea of making a public display to the Mussulman world of the pretence that Egypt is still a part of the empire. The British may tolerate the Commission, but the French are less likely to do so. They are already very suspicious of the influence excited on the Porte by England at this moment; and if they become convinced that the Commission is in any sense a British suggestion, or has British countenance or connivance, there will be trouble.

Sir Stafford Northcote has apparently been sufficiently affected by the criticisms called forth by his late concession that fair trade was only a good thing if it was reciprocal, to cause him to modify his position somewhat, or at least appear to do so. He now says that he "does not believe in some of the suggestions put forward by friends of his own side," which of course may mean various things, but will be generally taken to mean that he does not believe in a return to a protective tariff. He also protests against the Liberal "suggestion that the state of agriculture is remediable by a radical change in the land laws," but he admits that they are "susceptible of amendment." This is another of the now numerous signs that the fair-trade cry is losing all the force it ever had. The summary repudiation of it by the Trade-Union Congress, and the apparently firm determination of the farmers not to be diverted by it from the work of land-law reform, has probably by this time satisfied its supporters that it can secure no real hold on the public mind, and that as a "cry" it is worthless. What the Conservatives will do for a substitute it is hard to say. They are now forced to ask for a fair trial of the Irish Land act. They are afraid to come out openly against the English land agitation for fear of losing the counties, which are their chief strongholds, and there is nothing to take hold of in foreign politics.

## SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

## DOMESTIC.

ADDITIONAL expressions of sympathy for the late President's family and for the country have been received from foreign governments during the past week. The Emperors of Germany, Brazil, and Japan, and the Kings of Belgium and Norway and Sweden, sent messages of condolence. On Thursday Queen Victoria telegraphed enquiries after the health of the late President's mother as well as that of his wife, and requested Mr. Lowell to obtain for her a good picture of President Garfield. Mrs. Garfield and her family returned to Mentor on Wednesday.

The fund for Mrs. Garfield reached \$334,679 66 on Monday. The total amount collected for the Garfield monument at Cleveland so far is \$5,137.

Dr. Boynton has denied the report that he intends to attack the treatment of the President's case. Dr. Shady and Professor Weiss have, at Dr. Bliss's request, made an examination of specimens of the injured viscera, and have sustained Dr. Bliss in his treatment of the case. The official record of the autopsy has appeared in the October number of the *American Journal of the Medical Sciences*. It seems that the internal hemorrhage was caused by a rent in the main trunk of the splenic—not the mesenteric—artery.

It is reported that an informal understanding was reached by the Republican and Democratic Senators upon the funeral train from Washington in regard to the election of a President of the Senate, and that it was agreed that Senator Anthony or some other Republican chosen by the Republican Senators in caucus should be elected without dissent, while the Democrats should have the right of naming the Secretary of the Senate, whose office is now vacant.

Numerous rumors have been flying about during the week in regard to changes in the Cabinet, but nothing certain is known as yet. Secretary Windom insists that President Arthur shall regard his resignation as *bona fide*, and shall accept it at once. Mr. Windom wishes to ask the Minnesota Legislature, which assembles on the 10th of October, to return him to the Senate, from which he resigned in order to take the Secretaryship of the Treasury.

President Arthur arrived in New York on Thursday night. During his stay in this city he has received numerous calls from prominent politicians. His visit was declared, however, to be solely upon private business.

The election of delegates to the New York State Republican Convention appointed for October 5 has excited great interest in political circles during the week. The result of the election has on the whole been favorable to the "Anti-Conklingites" or "Garfield Republicans," as they now sometimes call themselves. There will be, however, a considerable number of contested seats, owing to the fact that the "Conklingites" have, in many instances, "bolted" when defeated in the local elections. The total number of delegates is 496. The Convention meets in the Academy of Music, in New York city. It is stated upon reliable authority that Mr. Conkling will not be present.

The Democratic State Convention of Pennsylvania met at Williamsport on Wednesday, September 28. Mr. Orange Noble, of Erie, was nominated for State Treasurer. The platform adopted states that the "Democratic party, as of old, favors a constitutional currency of gold and silver in all forms," calls for a "prompt and unflinching" prosecution of the frauds in the Postal and Treasury departments, for reform in the civil service, and a "return to the Jeffersonian tests for officeholders of honesty, capability, and faithfulness to the Constitution." It also takes strong ground against monopolies, and declares "that no monopoly or exclusive right in the

forces of nature, in grants of eminent domain, in the diffusion of information among the people by telegraph and associations for furnishing despatches to the press, or the grant of privileges affecting the daily business of the citizen, can or ought rightfully to exist under our form of government." A resolution was adopted expressing the grief of the Convention, "as the representatives of 400,000 Democratic voters," at the death of the President.

The Republican State Convention of Minnesota met at St. Paul on the same day. General Hubbard, the candidate supported by the repudiating interest, was nominated for Governor on the second ballot. The attendance at the Convention was very large, partly on account of the interest excited by the possibility of its taking some action on the question of the payment of the State bonds. The bond question, however, was not discussed. Charles Vandebury, D. A. Dickenson, and Judge Mitchell were nominated for the Supreme Bench. The present Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary of State, Treasurer, and Auditor were renominated. The platform adopted demands the "maintenance of the broad constitutional distinction" between the rights of the Executive and Senate in the matter of nominations to official positions, a permanent system of examinations for the civil service, a standard metallic currency, and protection by a discriminating tariff.

The Wisconsin Democrats, Maine Greenbackers, and Massachusetts Prohibitionists held conventions on the same day.

The "straight-out" Republican Central Committee of Virginia met at Richmond on Thursday. Resolutions were adopted repudiating the Central Committee chosen by the coalition convention at Lynchburg in August, and recommending the Republicans to nominate candidates for the Legislature in all counties where there is party strength.

The fall campaign in Ohio is reported to be one of the quietest ever known in that State. This is partly ascribed to the long sickness and final death of the President. The County Central Committee and the Campaign Committee of the Lincoln Club, which are the most powerful organizations in the State, have both decided that political meetings of the usual order will be inappropriate to the time. Notwithstanding the apparent listlessness of the campaign during the past week, however, it is expected that the death of the President will bring out a large Republican vote.

Guiteau's case was brought before the Grand Jury on Monday. Only four witnesses were heard. Surgeon-General Barnes testified to the wound, George W. Adams and Officer Kearney to the shooting, and Dr. Lamb in regard to the autopsy. Guiteau will probably be taken into court to plead on Wednesday morning. It is necessary that he should appear in open court, but everything will be conducted as quietly as possible. Guiteau has been displaying the most abject cowardice during the week. He is suspicious of every one, and has several times refused to take quinine prescribed for slight malarial attacks from which he has been suffering. He has given up writing the autobiography which he had planned. His brother-in-law, Mr. George Scoville, has been secured to defend him. It is said that his line of defence will consist mainly in showing that Guiteau comes of a family in which insanity is hereditary.

Proceedings were begun in the Star-route frauds on Friday by the filing of an information against Brady, French, and several clerks and contractors. It is unusual to begin proceedings of this kind by information, but the Grand Jury having been adjourned until October 3, it became necessary to proceed in this manner in order to avoid the operation of the Statute of Limitations. The information states that in October, 1878, Second Assistant Postmaster-General Brady, Chief Clerk John L. French, W. H. Turner, G. L. MacDonald, S. P. Brown, and certain other persons conspired to defraud the United States out of large sums

of money "in causing and procuring unnecessary and improper and extravagant additional compensation to be paid by the United States for additional service in carrying the mails." The document further attempts to show the method of proceeding on the part of the alleged conspirators in the particular case of the manipulations of the contract for carrying the mail on the route between Prescott, Arizona, and Santa Fé, New Mexico. It states that a contract was originally made with G. L. McDonough, by which he was to carry the mails over this route for \$13,313 per annum; that by various manipulations the contract originally awarded for this amount was increased to \$87,862, and that when the contract with McDonough was terminated General Brady made another contract with Walsh to carry the mails over this same route for \$18,500; that General Brady again manipulated this contract so that Walsh was made to appear to receive \$136,000 per annum, although the original contract was for \$18,500. The next step in the case will be the trial before the Supreme Court of the District.

Active preparations are being made for the celebration at Yorktown. In addition to the official delegation representing the French Government, there will be a delegation of about twenty gentlemen bearing some of the best known names in France. Admiral Porter will have charge of the naval forces assembled at Yorktown.

The Committee of Fifteen appointed by Governor Cornell to receive the guests at the Yorktown Centennial met on Wednesday. A series of resolutions were passed offering the courtesies of New York State to the foreign visitors, the President and the Cabinet, the French Legation and the French Consul-General, the presidents of the great commercial bodies of the city and of the chartered institutions of learning, and to numerous other gentlemen. Arrangements were made for the reception of the French guests. Upon their arrival they will be met by the commission appointed by the Governor. They will then proceed, under the escort of the Seventh Regiment, to the Fifth Avenue Hotel, where a reception will be held on the following morning. After this they will be taken to West Point on the United States man-of-war *Vandalia*, accompanied by the *Kearsarge*. Further than this, preparations have not been made. The committee will meet again on Friday.

Messrs. Shipman & Choate, counsel for the alleged bandit Esposito, have submitted a voluminous protest against the action of the United States authorities in surrendering their client to the Italian Government. They request that he be returned to this country so that "the question of his liability to extradition can be fairly and properly determined."

The receipts of the Government for the month of September have been large. It is estimated that they will be found to reach \$33,000,000. The reduction in the public debt for the month will probably exceed \$13,000,000. The aggregate receipts for the first quarter of the current fiscal year, which closed on Saturday, are over \$107,000,000, against \$98,000,000 for the corresponding quarter last year.

Captain Winans, of the whaling schooner *R. B. Hendy*, arrived in San Francisco from the Arctic Sea on October 1. He advances the theory, in a letter to the *San Francisco Bulletin*, that the *Jeannette* has sought a north-east passage round North America.

The Executive Committee of the Michigan Fire Relief Commission held a meeting on Saturday afternoon. There was some discussion as to the disposition of the funds. It was finally decided to send enough money to Port Huron to make the amount sent there equal to that sent to Detroit, and to retain the rest for further action of the Committee.

A meeting of the Anti-Monopoly Association was held in Tammany Hall, New York, on Monday evening. An address was read



which denounced monopolies and monopolists. Mr. F. B. Thurber made a speech, in the course of which he quoted poetry to the effect that while his heart beat at all it would always beat "for the under dog in the fight." Mr. John Kelly was chairman of the meeting.

The Co-operative Dress Association which has been started in New York was opened to subscribers on Monday. The capital stock is \$250,000. There are 10,000 shares of stock, divided among 7,000 shareholders, and Miss Kate Field is the president of the company. It is expected that competition with the Co-operative Association will bring down prices of goods in other stores.

Mr. Edwin Booth made his first appearance on the stage since his return from England at Booth's Theatre, New York, on Monday evening, in "Richelieu." The Italian tragedian Rossi appeared the same evening at the Globe Theatre, Boston, in "Lear."

The Scotch cutter *Madge* has been very successful in her races during the past week. On Wednesday she gained her second victory, defeating the *Wace*, of the Seawanhaka Club, by twenty-five minutes and thirty-nine seconds. On Thursday she defeated the *Mistral*, of the New York Club.

The team of English professional cricketers under Mr. Shaw, which arrived in this country last week, began a match on Saturday at Nicetown with a team selected from the best players of Philadelphia and the neighborhood. The match was continued on Monday. At the end of the first inning the English team was 151 runs ahead.

On Thursday Judge Westbrook, of the Supreme Court, granted the application of the receivers of the Manhattan Elevated Railroad for authority to borrow money on certificates for the purpose of paying the rentals, dividends, and interest in which the company is in default to the Metropolitan and New York companies. The amount to be borrowed was limited to one million dollars, and Judge Westbrook had it distinctly stated that the Court gave no guarantee that any more than the property actually owned by the Manhattan Railroad was answerable for this amount, and that no pledge was given by the Court that the property of the lessor companies should be held in the possession of the Manhattan Company until the certificates were paid. Mr. Cyrus Field is reported to have said that he considered the certificates almost worthless.

Bishop O'Hara and several of the Catholic clergymen of Scranton, Pennsylvania, and vicinity, preached sermons on Sunday last denouncing the "graveyard insurance men," who have been carrying on such a thriving business in Pennsylvania of late.

In the Malley case the defense have been continuing the attempt to prove an alibi for James Malley. Strong testimony has been adduced to prove that he was at work in the store during the hours of Thursday and Friday when, according to the testimony given for the State, he was elsewhere.

The three men who robbed the Iron Mountain Railroad train on the 22d of September have been captured.

The Chiricahua Apaches have left the San Carlos reservation, stealing cattle and killing citizens as they went. Colonel Sanford pursued them with three companies of cavalry, and overtook them October 2 near Cedar Springs. A fight ensued in which one sergeant was killed and four soldiers wounded. The loss of the Indians was not ascertained, but is believed to have been heavy.

A despatch from Arizona states that the surrendered hostiles of Sanchez's and other bands number 60 bucks, 73 squaws, and 76 children. Judge Advocate-General Egbert has gone to San Carlos to ascertain whether the renegades can be tried by military commission.

The Hon. William Walter Phelps, United States Minister to Austria, has asked to be relieved as soon as a successor can reach Vienna.

## FOREIGN.

The French are gradually accumulating troops at Tunis for the advance on Kairwan, the Holy City, and the headquarters of the insurgent tribes. General Logerot is to have command of the entire expedition when organized. The advance of General Corréard, with a smaller detachment, who has not got beyond Zaghuan, appears to have been attended with great difficulty, and frequent encounters with guerrilla parties. There is said to be much sickness among the troops. As correspondents are rigidly excluded from witnessing the operations, the news is scanty and comes mainly through official channels. The prevailing impression in Paris seems to be that the affair is becoming very serious. Bou-Amama, the Algerian insurgent chief, is said to have established communications with the Tunisians. The assistance rendered by the Bey's troops is small. They are greatly disturbed by the French. The Bey himself is said to be desirous of abdicating.

M. Roustan, French Minister to Tunis, has instituted a criminal prosecution against M. Henri Rochefort for his statement that M. Gambetta and M. Roustan arranged the Tunisian expedition for stock-jobbing purposes. M. Roustan has returned to Tunis from Paris. He is invested with full power to settle every question that may arise.

The convocation of the French Legislature has been fixed for October 28. The ministers will soon tender their resignations in order to leave M. Grévy full freedom of action; but it is stated that he will refuse to accept them, deeming it the proper course to wait and see whether the present cabinet will have the confidence of the new Chamber.

It is said that, upon the overthrow of Premier Ferry, President Grévy will send for M. Gambetta and give him the fullest latitude in choosing a Cabinet.

It is semi-officially stated that Sir Charles Dilke, Under Foreign Secretary of Great Britain, has declared privately that the negotiations for the Anglo-French commercial treaty are making fair progress. The *London Times*, however, states that unless the French negotiators relinquish the condition of the complete substitution of specific for *ad valorem* duties, upon which they have been insisting, it is difficult to see how any agreement can be arrived at. A Paris despatch to the *London Times* says that there is a feeling in Paris that the English commissioners have been acting as if it were for their interest to wait for the opening of the Chambers, relying on the expectation that there will be a stronger free-trade policy in the new than in the old Chamber, but that it may be safely affirmed that the new Chamber will be quite as protectionist as the old. Englishmen look to Gambetta to settle the matter.

The Scottish Chamber of Agriculture has prepared a Scottish Land Bill, which the *London Times* calls one of the "most far-reaching measures on the land question ever yet submitted to Parliament." It provides for an adjustment of rents by arbitration, a revaluation of farms, and for power in the tenant to sell his holding. It makes strict provision relative to compensation for improvements.

The Farmers' Alliance have drafted a Land Bill for England. The bill aims to establish security for the capital of the farmer, and to secure protection from capricious eviction; also to secure the right of the tenant to sell his improvements in open market, with the provision that the landlord must accept as a tenant for seven years, and at the same rent as that of the outgoing tenant, the person who purchases them. It calls for the creation of a land court in every district, for the settlement of disputes concerning rents and all other disputes.

Mr. Parnell had a public reception in Cork on Sunday. Triumphant arches were erected in some of the streets. There was a procession nearly two miles long.

Mr. Parnell has advised tenants not to go into the Land Court unless the Executive of the League selected their cases as test cases. The Land League has decided to appoint two tenants in each neighborhood to assess "fair rents," with a strict regard to leaving the tenants means for an improved mode of living. The amount thus fixed is to be registered by the local branch of the League, and no greater rent is to be paid.

Father Sheehy and four other prisoners have been released from prison. In a speech at Kilmallock Father Sheehy said that he came out of prison with the same spirit with which he had entered it.

Fresh outrages have been committed by the Land League. On Thursday an attempt was made to blow up the residence of Captain Thomas Lloyd at Pallas Green, County Limerick. The building was occupied at the time by Captain Lloyd, seventeen emergency men, and police. The building was shattered, but no one was hurt.

A meeting was held near Baltinglass, County Wicklow, for the purpose of establishing an organization for the protection of farmers and others who have incurred the displeasure of the Land League. It was resolved to establish an association to protect boycotted persons. The organization will pay special attention to Catholic farmers who are desirous of resisting the dictation of the League.

Lord O'Hagan, Lord Chancellor of Ireland, delivered the opening address at the Social Science Congress. He spoke hopefully of the proposed revival of Irish manufactures.

The official machinery of the Land Commission has been completed by the appointment of the following Assistant Commissioners: Professor Baldwin, the well-known authority on land; Colonel Bayley, who has an extensive acquaintance with farming; Messrs. Garland, Haughton, O'Keefe, O'Shaughnessy and Ross, who are practical farmers, and Mr. Rice, who was Assistant Commissioner, representing the tenant-farmers' interest, on the Richmond Commission.

In a speech at Hull on Monday, Sir Stafford Northcote said that he considered the condition of affairs as regards the Boer convention and the Anglo-French commercial treaty very unsatisfactory.

The commission appointed to inquire into the transport and commissariat operations during the Afghan campaign has discovered a vast system of bribery and corruption, and several influential native bankers have been arrested in India.

Foxhall won the Grand Duke Michael Stakes at the Newmarket October Handicap meeting on Thursday.

The meeting of the Czar and the Emperor of Austria will take place at Warsaw next week. General Ignatieff will accompany the Czar.

There was a great fire in Moscow on the 28th. Twenty warehouses were destroyed, and the damage is estimated at \$2,000,000.

The most important Chambers of Commerce in the various states of Germany have published reports for 1880. A great majority of the chambers, whether inclining to free trade or protection, reject Bismarck's new protectionist customs policy.

The subterranean telegraph system connecting 221 towns and cities of Germany has been completed. The total length of buried cables is 3,417 miles.

Herr Krupp, of Essen, has accepted a contract for the exportation of 25,000 tons of steel rails to the United States.

The state of the crops in Canada is said to be very satisfactory this year. The Grand Trunk authorities have issued their annual report of the condition of the crops along their lines. According to their report the wheat, oats, and barley exceed a fair average crop.

TUESDAY, October 4, 1881.

## A NOVEL EXTRADITION PROCEEDING.

THE counsel for Esposito have submitted to the State Department and the President a statement of the facts connected with his extradition, which throws new light on the very extraordinary manner in which the proceedings were conducted. They insist that the Italian Government ought to be made to surrender the man for a re-examination of his case.

The chief irregularities complained of are, first, that the man was kidnapped, and not arrested, in New Orleans. In support of this charge they produce a copy of the original warrant issued on June 17, 1881, which ran in these words: "To any marshal of the United States, to the deputies of any such marshal, or any or either of them, to any sheriff, constable or other officer in any State, District, or Territory within the jurisdiction of the United States, to James Mooney." James Mooney is not an officer of the United States, but a private professional detective carrying on business in this city. Under this warrant the prisoner was seized in New Orleans by him and brought to New York in irons. Messrs. Shipman and Choate, with commendable self-restraint, confine themselves to saying that such an arrest is illegal, only responsible officers having authority under our laws to make arrests. Marshals are required to give bonds for the very reason that persons who are wrongfully arrested by them may have indemnity for their illegal acts. James Mooney gives no bond, and no one can have any redress against him. Of course if James Mooney can arrest one person he can another, and the practice would be so frequently convenient for the marshal, and always so profitable to Mooney, that we may be sure it would grow in favor if warrants of this sort were upheld. When the charge of kidnapping was first made in the press, it was indignantly replied that the prisoner had been regularly arrested under a warrant. We now see what this meant, but the curious fact remains behind that as soon as he was brought to New York, the persons in charge of the proceeding immediately got out another warrant, addressed to the Marshal of the Southern District of New York and his deputies (and not to James Mooney) commanding them to arrest the accused. Why was this necessary if he was already in lawful custody?

The next feature of the case which merits attention is the transportation of the prisoner to New York. It is said that this was done because any United States Commissioner has power to issue warrants in extradition cases running all over the country. Assuming this to be the case, such extraordinary powers ought to be exercised with caution and a due regard for the rights of the person whose surrender is demanded. To drag a man from his home to a city fourteen hundred miles away, where he is absolutely unknown, and where, if he is poor, he can have no means of communicating with his friends and family or procuring any evidence in his behalf, when there was precisely the same machinery for the proper investigation of the case at the place where he was living, may not be illegal, but it is a gross abuse of law. The only explanation of this ever offered has been that the

prisoner had a powerful "gang" behind him in New Orleans, who would certainly have rescued him if any attempt had been made to extradite him there. Considering that the United States can always bring in the aid of the land and naval forces to preserve the peace in such cases, it is a little too much to ask any one to believe that Commissioner Osborn was affected by such an argument as this.

As soon as the case came up, it appeared that the main question was the identity of the prisoner. The evidence was conflicting, but the Commissioner decided that there was sufficient testimony that the prisoner was the brigand Randazzo, to authorize his surrender. We do not propose to criticize in any way this conclusion of the Commissioner, but in view of the subsequent proceedings it is important to notice that his decision was final unless it should be reviewed at Washington. Most people have a vague idea that the proper way to redress any injustice done by a Commissioner in such cases is by *habeas corpus*, and that his acts can always be reviewed by the Circuit Court. But the fact is that recent decisions of the Circuit Court make an appeal from the Commissioner on any question of fact or discretion impossible, and remit the prisoner for redress to the Executive. In one case it was contended on behalf of the prisoners that the evidence did not show that any act had been committed which amounted to a crime within the treaty. The court said:

"Of the effect of this evidence it was the judicial duty of the Commissioner to judge, and neither the duty nor the power to review his action thereon has been conferred upon any other judicial officer. If he deems it sufficient, the statute prescribes his further action in the premises. It then rests with the Executive authority to determine, in the last resort, what is demanded by justice and the obligations of the treaty. If it appears to the President, upon a review of all the evidence, that the charge is not sustained, and that justice and the obligation of the treaty do not require the surrender of the prisoners, he can refuse it and set them at liberty."

These decisions left the prisoner without any means of saving himself, after the decision of the Commissioner, from transportation to Italy but an appeal to Washington. This appeal would have been nominally to the Secretary of State, but really to the President himself. Due notice of it was given in open court. Everybody in the case from the Commissioner down was informed of it. In such cases it has been usual, as indeed it is obviously necessary, that written or printed briefs should be submitted, and a good deal of time occupied in argument. The case was decided on September 14th. On the 19th of last month, when the papers reached Washington, the President, to whom alone the appeal lay, was dying at Long Branch. The Secretary of State was absent. The First Assistant Secretary was also away. On this day a warrant of surrender, signed "W. Hunter, Acting Secretary of State," was obtained by some one acting on behalf of the Italian Government, no notice whatever having been given to the prisoner or his counsel. On this warrant, the existence of which the legal representatives of the Italian Government are stated to have specially requested the marshal in this city to keep secret, the prisoner was quietly shipped on Wednesday, the 21st, on board a steamer which sailed for Rotterdam on the same day.

Considering that his final surrender must have been effected by concealing from the authorities at Washington the fact of an appeal having been taken, this last step was, like the first, a simple case of kidnapping. Of course it is again justified by the fear of a "rescue," though the prisoner was brought to New York for the express reason that a rescue of him here was not feared.

The facts we have given above do not seem to be disputed. Comment upon them is superfluous.

## GOLD IN AMERICA AND EUROPE.

ALTHOUGH the rate of discount of the Bank of England remains at four per cent., the general anxiety which has for some time past prevailed in European money markets in anticipation of the American demand for gold has given place to a feeling of ease, and it is believed that future demands will be comparatively light and easily met without creating any stringency in the markets. There have been few occurrences of a financial nature in the past three years which present more interesting questions to the economist than this "drain of gold" from Europe to America, and much speculation has been made on the probable results. The resumption of specie payments in this country, and the vast refunding operations of the Government, both accomplished with no disturbance of the money market, may rival it in magnitude, but their results are not so far-reaching in their influence nor of such an uncertain nature. The elements of the problem are simple. A general failure of crops forced Europe to obtain her supplies from America, where the harvest was abnormally large. A large balance in favor of America was thus created, and the difficulty of settling this balance was increased by the tariff system, which prevented payment in merchandise, as the larger part of the balance would have been liquidated had trade been left to its natural course. Hence the necessity of an export of gold or of securities to pay the debt. Other disturbing influences this year were the loan placed on the market by Italy, which called for gold, and the action of the Bank of France in taking measures for protecting its reserves from any demand on the part of Italy and of the United States, and thus striving to throw the whole demand on the Bank of England. A monetary crisis was deemed imminent, but is not now probable. To these special and temporary causes of the export of gold from Europe must be added a general cause that will probably draw gold to this country for some time to come, though not in large amounts, but in a steady and continuous stream—viz., the natural demand on the part of the United States for an increased stock of bullion.

The United States for many years suffered from an inconvertible paper currency, which caused the larger portion of the gold in the country to be exported, and what little remained to become an object of speculation. There could be no stability of values under such a system. But in 1879 a return to specie payments rendered necessary, or at least safe, a larger reserve of the metals; and in July of that year the importation of gold began. This nation increasing in riches and population more



rapidly than any other nation on the globe, and requires for its extending manufactures and growing exchanges also an increase in the circulating medium. It is true that the economy in the use of the precious metals in this country is very great. The statistics collected by the Comptroller of the Currency show that in the city of New York but a little more than one-fourth of one per cent. of the financial transactions are settled in coin; checks, bank bills, and drafts serve for the balance. In other parts of the country the use of coin is larger, varying from three to nine per cent. in the larger cities, and a still higher average, probably, holds in the rural districts. The growing demand for an increased circulating medium comes from the interior, which is fast being settled, and the demand is stimulated at this season of the year by the need of money to move the crops. As the currency flows from the city to the interior the bank reserves are kept up by the imports of gold from Europe. But, as we have said, there are indications that the heaviest shipments are past.

It has been estimated—with how much truth can hardly be said, for the amount of gold used as currency and in manufactures is always more or less a matter of conjecture—that America already absorbs the total annual product of gold throughout the world (estimated by the London *Economist* in 1871 to be about £20,000,000), and that not only is none left for Europe, but the demand encroaches upon the existing stock of metal in Europe. This may be an exaggerated view of the condition of affairs, but it forcibly illustrates the anxiety which this drain is producing. The capacity of the banks of Europe to supply this extra demand is the real matter in doubt. A reasonable reserve of gold must be retained at all hazards, and the object of the recent sharp advance in the bank rates in the leading financial centres of Europe was to protect the reserves. Doubtless a large amount of gold can yet be exported without creating the threatened "gold famine," but any continuance of this exportation will render necessary a greater economy in the use of the metal. A few statements will serve to illustrate our meaning.

In the business centres of England the proportion of gold used in settlements is probably even less than what Mr. Knox thinks to be the proportion in this country; for England has long enjoyed a wide-spread banking system and a stable currency. The general banking system of England exhibits one peculiarity: the Bank of England serves as a reserve for all the other banks in the kingdom, and it is upon the treasure in the vaults of the Bank of England that all the demands for export operate. It is necessary, therefore, to keep an adequate reserve of gold to meet any unusual demand that may occur. Mr. Tooke used to say that the reserve should never fall below ten million pounds; but Mr. Ricardo argued that by the adoption of his system of regulating the currency a reserve of only three millions in gold would be required to float twenty-four millions of paper. Even if this computation errs in giving too small a reserve, and making allowance for the great increase in the amount of exchanges since that estimate was made, it at least shows that

some further economy in the use of the metals could be devised. In such an event the same method could doubtless be applied in this country, which would set free in this market a further quantity of gold with which to meet the demands of the interior.

In France there is room for much improvement in the banking and credit systems. The population of France is one-third less than that of the United States, yet it is believed that there is twice as much gold in the former country as in the latter, though, as we have said, such statements must be received with caution. But other facts show that there is more gold in France than would be needed under a highly developed credit system. The banking system has long been in a rudimentary state, and the savings of the people (and what French peasant does not save?) used to be hid in old stockings and pots. Among the lower classes the practice of hoarding was general, and among the rich many would find it impossible to make even large payments otherwise than in coin or bank bills. The French peasants and middle classes have of late been beginning to learn how to invest their savings, but the amounts hoarded are undoubtedly still very large. An increased demand for gold would draw out these hoards, and thus a further supply of gold sufficient to meet the demand would be thrown upon the market. An extension of a stable banking system would produce the same effect; for the custom of employing bank checks is not general, and a stamp tax, light as it is, prevents the general use of this substitute for coin.

In Sweden, it is said, the banking system is nearly as good as in England, and the use of gold consequently as small. Italy, Austria, and Russia can spare no gold, and in the case of Germany we have no statistics by which we can judge of the extent to which her reserves can be drawn upon, but it cannot be very great. From France alone, then, can any great supply of gold be expected without a monetary crisis or a change in the monetary system.

Not the least curious phase of this exportation of gold is the great difference of opinion as to its results exhibited by those who are most competent to judge of the matter. An example of this is seen in the recent utterances of two well-known European economists. M. Laveleye, who is a bimetallist, writing in the *Nineteenth Century* for September on the future of gold, says:

"Even supposing that the absorption of gold by America will suddenly stop, it is beyond all doubt that if silver remains proscribed there will not be gold enough for the monetary and industrial uses of Europe. Already, at the very moment these lines are written, the gold scarcity begins to be seriously felt on the money market. What the late Mr. Bagehot used to call the 'apprehension point' is very near. Soon the sentiment of living under the perpetual fear of lacking the breathing-air of commerce—i. e., of the means of exchange—will become intolerable, long before the exhaustion of the gold washings predicted by Dr. Suess will be realized."

We have already suggested the reply to such an argument. On the other hand, the able editor of the *Économiste Français* writes in the last issue:

"In truth, what disturbs us is not the decreasing supply of gold in France, but the abundance of silver. We could wish that for every milliard of gold parted with there also went out with it one and one-half milliard of silver. The evil which we suffer in France is not an absence

of gold, but an encumbrance of silver. There is great risk that owing to the many faults of our Government we shall have a silver standard only. The maintenance of the present monetary situation is becoming more and more difficult, and it is necessary to take steps to demonetize silver."

If by any turn of affairs there should be a necessity of exporting gold from America to Europe, we should be in very much the same position in which France now is—rapidly drifting to a silver standard.

#### LORD DERBY ON IRISH AFFAIRS.

LORD DERBY, who now deservedly enjoys the reputation of being *par excellence* the sensible man of British politics, has written an article in the *Nineteenth Century* on Irish affairs, in which he confirms the view which we ventured to propound in these columns some weeks ago, that the Irish discontent was not likely to be appeased by the Land Act, but that, on the contrary, it was likely, in consequence of the Land Act, to be more formidable than ever. The reasons we gave for this opinion were almost identical with those he gives. The passage of the Land Act, unfortunately, took place under the pressure of Irish turbulence, and it is not, therefore, unnatural for the Land Leaguers to conclude that more turbulence will produce more concession; therefore more turbulence there will probably be. Secondly, the Land Act has given the tenants a greater sense of power than they have ever had, and in this way has widened in their eyes the range of their political possibilities. It has, in fact, made that which the vast majority of them eagerly desire—legislative independence—seem to them now far more nearly within their reach than it has ever seemed before. Lord Derby thinks, therefore, that the struggle for this will now be continued with more vigor than ever.

The telegraphic summary of his article, which is all that we have seen, does not give his remedy. He apparently looks forward to a prolonged and obstinate attack on the Union by the Irish people, and an equally prolonged and obstinate defence by the English people. What he thinks the issue is likely to be, we do not know. But it is to our mind certain that if there be any way of meeting this attack successfully—that is, of bringing it to a favorable termination without a dissolution of the Union—there is but one. If there be any concession to Irish national longings or prejudices, short of a dissolution of the Union, which Englishmen are willing to make for the sake of peace and good will, it ought to be made promptly. It ought to be made before it takes that form of inevitableness which every man in England saw the Land Bill had taken before the close of the last session of Parliament, and which unhappily prevented its passage having the air of conciliation. That there is such a concession—that English Liberals at all events are prepared to let Irishmen manage their own affairs to the extent to which Scotchmen are allowed to manage theirs—Mr. Gladstone admitted in the recent debates, but he unfortunately spoke of it only as a concession which might be made at some remote and indeterminate period. But to make it of any real value it ought to be made at once. If made now it would probably take the wind out of the sails of the new agitation

which Lord Derby says is springing up, and might end precipitately the struggle which he says is only just beginning.

Unhappily there is no sign of it. The management of Irish affairs at this moment, in so far as they are in the hands of the Executive, seems to be left entirely to Mr. Forster and his English advisers at "the Castle." There is no sign that any opinion which the bulk of the people recognize as Irish opinion has the smallest weight with him, or is even considered by him. The continuance of the Coercion Act is condemned severely at this moment by everything which can be called Irish opinion, as well as by some of the best English opinion. But by this Mr. Forster is not affected in the least. He gives no sign that the Ministry are dreaming of such a thing as allowing Irish representatives to say what sort of treatment Irish discontent requires. He is nevertheless a good man, and a well-meaning man, and he is governing Ireland through a body in which she is represented. Therefore his position is technically unassailable. But the mistake Englishmen have been making about the government of Ireland, ever since the Union, lies in supposing that in politics it is enough to have the law on your side. Mr. Forster is technically the countryman and fellow-subject of the Irish; in reality he is to the bulk of the Irish people as much a foreigner as President Grévy, and far more a foreigner than President Arthur. The majority in the House of Commons which armed him with the power he exercises was essentially a foreign majority. It may have been a wise and benevolent and upright majority. But in our day it is not enough that the majority be wise and upright and benevolent to secure cheerful obedience to its enactments. It must be a majority composed of men whom those who are to obey feel to be their countrymen, and though perhaps belonging to an opposing camp in politics, to be animated at bottom by the same hopes and fears and sympathies and ideals. Greater contempt for Irish feeling in this matter could hardly have been shown than Lord Beaconsfield showed in giving the Irish Secretaryship first to Sir Michael Hicks Beach and then to Mr. James Lowther. These were appointments which would, *mutatis mutandis*, have exasperated to the last point any disturbed community, even a community tenfold more reasonable than the Irish community is. There is no race of men in the world who would submit to Mr. James Lowther's or even Mr. Forster's rule in the shape in which it comes, without bitterness and fierceness. The mistake Mr. Gladstone is making is in not putting an end to it at once, and giving all the chief Irish offices to Irishmen while this compromise is still open, and in not checking the tone of insolent power with which some of his followers, notably Sir William Harcourt, treat Irish malcontents. It is not yet too late to correct it; but in two or three years it probably will be.

#### THE LAND AGITATION IN ENGLAND.

THE appearance in a very pronounced form of the agitation for reform in the land tenures in

both England and Scotland is one more sign that the "Fair-Trade" device has failed. The discussion of the subject which the Tories very unwisely stimulated brought out very clearly the fact that English manufactures were not really suffering in any unusual degree from foreign competition, or in any degree from any cause except the crop failures of the last five years, involving, according to Mr. Bright's estimate, a loss to the nation of \$1,000,000,000. The statistics of all kinds are conclusive as to the generally healthy condition of British industry. They show increased consumption by the working classes, increased deposits in the savings banks, and a marked decline in the number of paupers. They show nothing unfavorable, in fact, except a cessation of the extraordinary rapidity of progress exhibited during the ten years following the crisis of 1866. In truth, on reading the figures illustrating the industrial condition of the country which Lord Derby poured on the heads of Fair Traders in his speech a fortnight ago, any one who knew nothing of their antecedents or of the secret plans of their leaders would be at a loss to account for their beginning it at all. The outbreak of the land agitation both in England and Scotland, explains, however, clearly enough why they began it. They began it to turn away attention from the true means of relieving the only branch of British industry which is really in distress, and which legislation can really help—the agricultural industry.

It is acknowledged now that this cannot recover under its present organization. It does not help the landlords to say that the trouble is all due to five bad years in succession, and is therefore temporary. All the landlord's calculations of what the British farmer can stand in the way of charges without succumbing to American competition, are based on the assumption that the five bad years which have just elapsed will not recur. But the mere fact that five bad years have followed each other in succession would satisfy every farmer that they might be looked for again, and that the possibility of them must be taken into his calculations, even if farming had not always been a business in which an occasional bad year was a certainty. The most hopeful farmer hitherto has only expected to make money "one year with another"—never many years in succession. Five bad years in succession combined with American competition have of course greatly changed the farming outlook to all the class who have hitherto been in the habit of investing capital in agriculture. Even if they were ready to face the apparently increasing uncertainty of the weather and the uncertainty of foreign competition, they could not face at the same time the old and long-standing uncertainty about the rent. There are but few leases in England. The amount of rent is mostly an affair of reasonableness and "good feeling" between the landlord and tenant. This basis for business might do where the margin for profit was large, but will not do here, where the farmer has to figure more closely than ever and be very sure of his figures in order to escape ruin.

Most landlords have raised their style of living and the charges on their property and their estimate of its value during the past twenty fat

years. They are naturally reluctant to come down to what we call here "lower values." To do so would to many of them mean confession that they were ruined. They therefore struggle hard to cherish and diffuse the belief that the present agricultural distress is but transitory; that the cause is to be found in the tariff, or something else far away from the land; that the remedy is "Fair Trade," or some other nostrum.

This, however, naturally alarms the farmers, and prevents the numerous temporary reductions of rent and remissions of arrears which have been made from having the desired effect. They say to themselves that as long as landlords hold these views about the cause of the trouble, they are sure to return to the old rates as soon as there is another good harvest, and farming is therefore not a safe business. They ask themselves, naturally enough, why, when the Irish farmer is furnished by law with absolute certainty as to his principal item of expenditure, for fifteen years at a time, and is at all times protected against the operation of the landlord's necessities or caprices, the Englishman should be left to take his chance of both? In Scotland there is a custom of nineteen-year leases, but even there the notion has got into the tenant's head that the close of the lease does not put an end to his claim on the farm; that the landlord has no right to put up his home to the highest bidder, and thus get the benefit of improvements which, even if they are exhausted in a commercial sense, undoubtedly heighten the attractiveness of the place to the stranger.

In fact, it would appear from what is now passing both in England and Scotland that the idea which has been recognized in the Irish Land Act, that the landlord is only part owner, is not an exclusively Irish idea, after all. The Saxon mind moves more slowly than the Irish mind, but it seems to take kindly to this survival, as it has been called, of the tribal state. It is apparently prepared to take that step backwards and towards a ruder economical stage, which the English economists, like Lord Sherbrooke, the Duke of Argyll, and Mr. Bonamy Price, distinctly detect in the Irish Land Act. Of course, it would not take it so readily if the times were good. It was the terrible suffering of the working classes during the periods of dear food which recurred so often under the high tariff, that committed England irrevocably to what was then the strangest and queerest economical policy in the world, the policy of free trade. It is the inability of the land to maintain three classes in interest which will probably soon bring about a recognition of the idea of state property in land, which has perhaps had less foothold in England than in any other country. When Mr. Mill, many years ago, suggested that what he called the "unearned increment" in the land—that is, the rise in value caused by the growth of population, the neighborhood of great towns, and the construction of railroads—properly belonged not to the owners of the fee, but to the public, he was treated almost as an amiable lunatic. We do not say that since then the notion that the state has a right to share in the profits of land has in its naked form made much



progress; but the notion that the state possesses vast and widespread powers of interference with the ownership of land, that the land is the dwelling place of the nation, and not a collection of estates simply, has made very great progress since Mr. Mill's day. We shall probably now see its results multiply every year in legislation. The legislation will be in the direction of what may be called quieting the cultivator, that is, making his mind easy about his future and giving certainty to his calculations in making his investments.

The English Farmers' Alliance has followed the example of the Scotchmen in drafting a bill as the basis of their agitation, and the main feature of the measure in both cases is the transfer to a court of the power of fixing the rent. As the rent will depend on the market and not, as hitherto, on the landlord's estimate of what the tenant would bear sooner than surrender his home, of course this transfer would involve a social revolution of considerable magnitude. That all its consequences will be pleasant or valuable no one can expect; but it will raise a very large class immensely in self-respect, in enterprise, and in political independence.

#### LIEUTENANT FLIPPER'S DEFENCE.

A CORRESPONDENT writes to us :

"In your yesterday's paper there is an article on Flipper, in which West Point comes in for its usual share of abuse, based on the assertion that Colonel Shafter is a West Pointer. The writer of that article will no doubt be surprised when he consults his Army Register and finds that Colonel Shafter is not a graduate of West Point. He won great distinction in the late war, being brevetted several times for gallant conduct, and at the close of the war was appointed in the regular army.

"The writer of that article will be further surprised that twenty officers in Lieutenant Flipper's regiment are civilians, while in Colonel Shafter's regiment some twenty-three of the officers came from civil life.

"I do not think that the reputation of a brave, gallant, and efficient officer should be thus assailed on the improbable statement of Lieutenant Flipper, even if he is colored."

This affair was funny in the beginning and grows funnier every day. When Flipper was first accused we thought, in view of Whittaker's remarkable defence, that it would be a good joke to predict that Flipper would appear also as a race martyr, and set up a similar defence. We accordingly did so, and sketched out the defence for him. Only one thing was needed to make the joke complete, and that was that the prediction should be fulfilled. Sure enough it was. As soon as he could be heard from, Flipper was found proclaiming himself the victim of an elaborate white conspiracy, and his colored friends, as before, put West Point and his commanding officer "on trial." This was very amusing, as it seemed to us, and we reported his account of his pleas for the further entertainment of our readers. But here our arrangements began to break down, for the joke did not take. We got letters from some subscribers complaining of our brutal treatment of Flipper, and from others complaining of our scurrilous attack on Colonel Shafter, and also requests that we would decide wagers on the question whether we were joking or in earnest. Some took our report of Flipper's statement of his case as an expression of our own opinion of it, and others as a base attempt to discredit the story of a friendless and sorely-tried colored victim of white arrogance. The following is really the

only letter we have received from those who have appreciated our exertions in the cause of innocent mirth :

"The delightful irony that points your review of the Flipper case will be probably best appreciated by those who have known Colonel Shafter's high character and some of the facts of his life.

"You err in assuming him to be a graduate of West Point. He is a graduate, and one of the very best, of the volunteer army; and what is specially significant, in view of his relations with Flipper, is the fact that he was one of the first, and was recognized in the army as one of the most successful, commanders of colored troops during the civil war. J. A. B. W."

In view of all this we suppose we must admit that the joke has proved a failure. There is clearly less demand for irony, even in the crude or pig state, than we thought there was. But we console ourselves with the reflection that the prediction has been an immense success. We cannot recall any newspaper exploit of recent times which can compare with it. The defence we sketched out for Flipper was far-fetched and intricate, and its adoption, to the careless observer, seemed highly improbable. We were more than two thousand miles distant from him, and knew nothing of his mental habits. Nevertheless, he has followed its leading lines very closely. Our suggestion that they made him Commissary of Subsistence out of far-reaching malice, with the view of basing a charge of embezzlement on his want of skill in accounts, we considered the least valuable of all our imaginings, and yet this too turned out a masterpiece, for he took it as it stood. Our satisfaction and pride were complete when the colored organ, the *Globe*, put Colonel Shafter and the Military Academy "on trial" for accusing Flipper, and when Flipper became in the twinkling of an eye a kind of prosecuting judge advocate. There is nobody, however devoid of humor, but must enjoy this, because even those who do not understand joking like to see a prediction come true, or a guess turning out correct, or the solution of a conundrum, or in fact any successful dealing of the human mind with the unknown or apparently inscrutable.

#### THREE BRITISH CONGRESSES.

LONDON, September 20, 1881.

We are now in the midst of the various congresses and meetings of societies which take place in the autumn and occupy men's minds after the cessation of political strife at Westminster. The congress season, if I may so term it, has been an unusually brilliant one this year. It started last month with the International Medical Congress, which was remarkable both from the excellence of the papers read and the importance of the subjects with which they dealt, and also from the number of eminent men of all nations who had the opportunity of meeting together face to face. Since then the British Association for the Advancement of Science has held its Jubilee meeting at York, and has brought prominently before the world the great strides made by science during the last fifty years, and filled it with hopes of what may be done in the future. In London three congresses have been going on and attracting more or less of attention: the Trades-Union Congress, which has just brought its sittings to a close; the Conference of Librarians; and, last but not least, the Ecumenical Conference of Methodists. All these meetings serve to bring into prominence the great number and variety of the interests which constitute our modern civilization, and enable one to take stock of the forces which go to form the sum total which we call public opinion.

Without doubt the congress which has attracted most attention is that of the British Association at York. The interest taken in it

cannot be measured solely by the number of those present, though this was considerable—amounting to 2,556, a number which has only been exceeded on seven previous occasions; it must be tested also by the amount of comment and discussion in the press to which the reports of the proceedings of the Congress gave rise. The more intelligent part of the public is thoroughly familiar with the idea of the triumphs which have been achieved by the scientific method; and an occasion such as this, when the Association was celebrating its fiftieth anniversary, was well calculated to draw out the full measure of interest. The proceedings were worthy of the occasion. The address of the President, Sir John Lubbock, is universally admitted to have been a most able review of the principal achievements of science during the last fifty years, and the papers and reports in the different sections, amounting to nearly three hundred and fifty in all, were many of them of great value. To attempt to generalize in any way on the results of the meeting would be obviously impossible, and your readers will doubtless refer to the special organs of science for full reports of the discussions. There is some talk of transferring the scene of one at least of the future meetings to the New World, and Canada has been suggested as the place of meeting for 1885.

For other reasons than those which have given such interest to the meeting of the British Association, the Trades-Union Congress has attracted a large amount of attention. Your readers will bear in mind that with us the present extended suffrage is of comparatively recent date, going back only fourteen years, and that it was not carried into law without gloomy predictions not only from professional Conservative politicians, but also from independent thinkers, as to the use which the most numerous class of the community might make of it. Later on, in 1875, when trades-unions were granted their legal status, expression was given to the same feelings of alarm, and we heard a great deal of the dangers which would befall us when the working classes got to know their power and combined against the rest of the community. To such fears the Congress which has just brought its sittings to a close supplies the best antidote; not that the alarmist will not find a programme which is extremely distasteful to him, but that, if he be fair-minded, he will recognize that it is put forward by men who, so far from constituting a class apart, form an integral portion of the community, share its feelings and common interests, and have the same differences of opinion among themselves as any other class. If he has heard much of the Socialists of the Continent, or of the doctrines of the "Internationale," and expects to find furious denunciations of religion, marriage, and private property, he will be agreeably surprised. The programme contains nothing so exciting. The Congress is, in the first place, a business meeting, where the special trade interests of the workmen are treated in a practical and sensible manner; then it is a meeting for the discussion of measures of a more or less political character, which are calculated to benefit the working classes, and which the Legislature is to be prevailed upon to pass; and throughout its proceedings there reigned a spirit which is absolutely the reverse of anything that can be called revolutionary.

The Congress met on the 12th, and was attended by one hundred and twenty-nine delegates of trades-unions and trade councils, representing one hundred and two distinct trade organizations, which have an aggregate of over four hundred and seventeen thousand members. Among the delegates were several women, who represented trades in which women were em-

ployed, and, as the sequel showed, took an active part in the discussions. The proceedings were opened by an address by the chairman of the Parliamentary Committee, which was an admirable example of the temper I have indicated; and then, after the election of officers, followed a resolution, unanimously agreed to, expressive of the horror felt by the trade societies at the attempted assassination of the President of the United States, and of sympathy with the American people under the calamity thus brought upon them. To dwell upon the details of the discussion which ensued would hardly be worth while. A great variety of matters was brought before the meeting. Some of these were specially trade questions, such as the working of the Employers' Liability Act of last year, the appointment of workmen—and working-women too, as carried by an amendment—as inspectors of factories and workshops, under the Factory and Workshops Consolidation Act, and the establishment of co-operative societies for purposes of production, which was commended to the notice of the branches. Others were questions of a general kind, such as imprisonment for debt, the codification of the law, the land laws, and the assimilation of the borough and county franchise, all of which might have stood for debate at any Radical club. One of the discussions which arose was so signal an instance of the temper in which the delegates treated political questions that it is worth while to dwell upon it for a moment. Your readers are aware that one of the most peculiar of English institutions is the existence of an unpaid magistracy, sitting in petty sessions throughout the country districts. In each county men of position and standing are put upon the bench, and attendance at sessions forms part of the ordinary life of most country gentlemen. The system is obviously open to criticism on many grounds, and the main charge made against it at the Congress was that magistrates were appointed who had received no special training for the work, and that in certain cases, such as offences under the game laws, their sympathies as landowners biased their decisions. Here was a case in which it might have been expected that all the speeches would have been on one side, and that the leaning to a paid magistracy would have been unanimous. Yet it was not so. One member pointed out that in the towns, where there was always a stipendiary, the system was not more satisfactory, and another called attention to the small number of appeals from the decisions of the unpaid magistracy. A mixed bench was advocated, in which the trained skill of the lawyer and the common sense of the plain man might both find a place; and though ultimately a somewhat vague resolution expressing dissatisfaction with the present system was carried, it was not till after both sides of the question had been before the meeting.

But by far the most important act of the Congress, as far as the public are concerned, has been its emphatic repudiation of the Fair-Trade movement. The president gave the key-note in his address by the remark, which was received with loud applause, that they "were not willing to tolerate any reversion to the old nonsense of protection." Later on, a curious incident took place. In order to ensure that the delegates who attend are duly accredited by the bodies which they profess to represent, a resolution was passed at the second meeting to the effect that no one should be eligible as a delegate whose expenses were paid by private individuals or institutions not *bona-fide* trades-societies or trade councils. Under this resolution five delegates were found to be present without proper credentials, and were accordingly expelled from the Congress. These men were known to be advocates of the

Fair-Trade theory, and the Congress has been charged in some quarters with insisting on an unduly strict interpretation of its resolution in order to burke a discussion of the question. It is more generally felt, however, that, in view of the importance of ensuring to the Congress its character of a *bona-fide* representative body, it could have taken no other course if it was to maintain its authority. In any case, its decided vote on the question of Free Trade is the point which has impressed itself upon the public mind. The tax on bread has proved, as was to be expected, too much for the working classes to swallow.

The Methodist Ecumenical Conference, which has been attended by members of every sect into which Methodism is divided, and by representatives from every quarter of the globe, is assuredly a unique gathering, and one which, from its circumstances and the cause which it represents, might be expected to create a considerable amount of interest. Yet I do not think I should be misrepresenting public opinion here if I were to say that, whatever may be the effect produced within the circle of the adherents of the creed, it has not in any great degree attracted the attention of the public. The reason of this want of interest is probably to be found partly in the existence in this country of an established church, to which, from its learning and prestige, the public habitually look for the best that can be said in behalf of the distinctively Christian as opposed to the secular view of life; and partly in the wide diffusion throughout all classes of scientific theories which, to say the least of them, tend to throw considerable doubt on the fundamental beliefs common to all divisions of Christendom. From these causes Methodism has somewhat fallen out of account in the reckoning up of the forces from which society may expect fresh developments, or the solution of social problems. As a force operating upon individuals, beginning and ending with the individual, it certainly cannot be ignored; but as a force operating upon society as a whole, either with a mission to impress upon the world a new social ideal, or, like Roman Catholicism, claiming allegiance in rivalry to the state, it cannot be said to command attention. In the proceedings of the Conference itself there was nothing calculated to modify materially the general view. The interest of the discussion has been mainly for the initiated. The questions brought up for debate have partly belonged to the work of organization within the church, and have partly dealt with matters which might well have come before any Christian assemblage. The history of Methodism and the statistical results of its success naturally occupied the first place. The subject was introduced by the Rev. Dr. Cooke, of the Methodist New Connection of Great Britain, who drew attention to the fact that Methodism, which one hundred and forty-four years ago had no existence, now numbered 4,688,033 members, and, including adherents, a Methodist population of nearly 23,500,000 souls, and, he somewhat quaintly added, "besides these, many millions of glorified spirits in heaven." Then followed a discussion on the advantages of the itinerant ministry and of the institution of lay preachers; the training of children, both in the Sunday-school and at home, so as to attach them to Methodism; and, among other questions, the sphere of women's work in Methodism. Subjects of a more general character were also dealt with, such as the observance of the Sabbath; the attitude to be observed by Methodists towards temperance; the use of the press as a means of Christian propaganda; foreign missions; the opium traffic; and the armaments of Europe. On the question of the possible perils of Methodism from modern scepticism, the Rev.

Dr. Todd, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, boldly enjoined upon the ministry the duty of familiarizing themselves with current scientific teaching, and advocated the introduction of physical science into the course of study of candidates for the ministry. On the concluding day papers were read on the question how Christian unity might be increased among the Methodists, and on the catholicity of Methodism, and the Conference separated with a resolution declaring it advisable that a second Ecumenical Conference should be held, if practicable, in the United States, in 1887.

One group of questions with which we are familiar here was conspicuous by its absence—viz., the political aspects of Dissent. Here the political Nonconformist is a prominent figure: he is an ardent and useful Liberal, ranging himself habitually on the side of the party now in power; he denounces wars and armaments, and it was owing greatly to his efforts that the Jingo policy of the late Government received so crushing a defeat; he is ever on the watch to guard against the encroachments of the Church in education and the administration of the poor-law; and he holds tenaciously, I need scarcely add, to the idea of the separation of Church and State, and looks forward to the realization of this idea as his final goal. In a purely English gathering of Nonconformists such a question as that of disestablishment, and cognate questions, would certainly have found a place; and it is a striking testimony to the success of the policy of practical and theoretical religious equality which has been carried out in America and the colonies, that these matters found no place in the programme of the Conference. In this gathering Methodism has appeared in its true colors, as a purely spiritual force, not organized in the sense in which Comte conceived a spiritual organization, but working with a method and procedure of its own which experience has proved to be adapted to its ends. No better key to its position can be found than the eloquent words with which the Rev. John Myers closed his paper on the concluding day, and which I may be perhaps allowed to quote in full:

"Our Conference will soon close; our essays are well-nigh all read, our addresses nearly all spoken, our discussions nearly ended, and what are to be the results? Shall Methodism from this Conference renew its youth, and return to its ancient path of going 'into the highways and hedges' to compel the millions of our perishing fellow-sinners to come in to the feast which our loving Father has prepared? Say not that they will not hear, for the thousands that press along the streets and crowd into dreary, most uncomfortable buildings to hear, and who subscribe of their pence thousands sterling a year to support the Salvation Army, show us that they will hear where the conditions of hearing are suitable to them. They may not come to our churches and chapels to present their destitution as a contrast to our respectability; they may not listen to well-prepared essays, whose finish is so perfect that, to use the words of one of them, they are so smooth that there is not friction enough to light a Congreve match upon them; but the entire history of Methodism shows that whoever will tell the old, old story in plain and simple words and loving tones, will never want an ear to hear his message." H.

#### A SUMMER RESORT IN SOUTHEASTERN EUROPE.

HERCULESBAD, NEAR MEHÁDIA, }  
Sept. 10, 1881. }

BUDA-PESTH and Bucharest are like the rhymes in a poor distich: all very well in themselves, it is the intervening space that is tedious. The great, drab plains of Hungary and Wallachia, where the towns, the roads, the people all look equally dusty and dilapidated, are what decides the character of the impressions of most travellers going from Vienna to the East. On



the whole, the effect is of a dead level, and yet half-way between the two extremes there is the beautiful scenery of the Transylvanian Alps. A little halt among these mountains may be made so agreeable as to cause one to forget the tedium of the rest of the journey. This fact is worth insisting on, in view of the great number of travellers who now follow this route to Constantinople and the East, and who are apt to regard this particular stretch as the most wearisome one of all the weary way.

Fortunately, as nearly as may be half-way between Pesh and Bucharest, is a station that seems placed there by a kind of travellers' Providence. It breaks the monotonous line of stations where, were there anything to be seen, there would still be lacking a bed to lie down in without fear, or a dish not smothered in red pepper and other strangling condiments. But Herculesbad (Herculesfürdő in Magyar) is Austrian, though in respect to cookery it is but a poor and far-away cousin of Vienna. In other respects this is a bathing-place that has been in repute for more than seventeen hundred years. The Romans used it and consecrated one of the principal springs to Hercules. Inscriptions in his honor to Æsculapius and Hygieia and other divinities, together with fragments of sculpture, have been found and now ornament the promenades of the place. The springs, of which nine are in actual use, are held to be sovereign for rheumatism, and good for gout, neuralgia, and hypochondria. The Government maintains here a military hospital, besides which the baths are visited by about five thousand strangers in the course of the season. In its height the affluence is so great that bathing, even in the waters of some of the less-renowned springs, begins at two o'clock in the morning, and many have to wait two or three hours for their turn.

Our recommendation is directed, however, rather to tourists and pleasure-seekers than to invalids. Herculesbad exists for all classes. It is indeed the principal watering-place for Rumania, Servia, and a large part of Hungary. Notices of amusements and advertisements are addressed to visitors in the languages of these three countries, with, ordinarily, a German translation for the rest of the world. It goes without saying that the aspect of the place is in a high degree varied; the more so as national costumes have not died out in this part of the world, and race and position are made evident even to a careless eye. To be sure, the taint of affectation occasionally kills the character of the dress; the pretty ladies of Bucharest, who sometimes appear at the Cursalon as superb versions of the peasant-girls of their neighborhood, are prompted by the same spirit that induces the Englishman, who has rented a Highland shooting, to bare his legs and don kilt and tartan when he goes out with the gillies. But the old-fashioned Hungarian, peasant or noble, wears his embroideries like a man to whom no idea of wearing any other dress has ever come. So with the Servian ladies, with their velvet jackets bordered with silver, and their caps of scarlet or of gold coins. Indeed, Servia is such a land of unpretentiousness that I dare say even its Jewesses are contented in the ugly head-gear that marks their race. But of all the costumes here, that of the peasant women of the country is the most striking. Its elements are few, at least during the warm weather, when it consists in a handkerchief on the head, a long chemise, and a fringed girdle. Lest it should be assumed that this covering is all too scant, we hasten to add that both the chemise, which is richly embroidered, and the fringe of scarlet and violet, descend to the ankles. In color and in grace the costume leaves nothing to be desired. In colder weather a jacket of white sheepskin, gay with

silk embroidery, is put on, and, as the cold increases, above this is worn a long mantle of white felt, also ornamented, but usually in black. It is well worth while on a fête day to go to one of the neighboring villages, or to Orsova, to see the youths and maidens in their best—the above is only the ordinary wear—dancing the *Lora*, the Rumanian national dance, in all the open places. Even after having seen the popular dances of Greece and Russia, it must be owned that this spectacle has a character quite its own.

Herculesbad has the ordinary watering-place amusements, excepting that the music given two or three times a day in the Garden of the Cursalon is usually from an Hungarian orchestra. While freely yielding to the Hungarians the doubtful honor they may claim for their *cuisine*, it must be said that they owe their music, which is not without a certain weird beauty, to the Gypsies. The players in all their orchestras look as strange and wild as the music they play, so that it is, to our mind, a question how far these famous dances deserve the name of Hungarian.

The crowning glory of Herculesbad is its situation. It is in a narrow valley, between mountains whose slopes are richly covered with wood, above which rise the summits in precipices and needles of bare rock. Between the slopes, often occupying the full width of the valley, flows a river, named, in the simple nomenclature of the peasants, the Cserna, or Cserna Reka ("Black River"), because its bed is rocky and abounds in deep, dark pools, though the real color of the water is a lovely, transparent, chrysoprase green. It joins, not far below, the Bela Reka, or "White River," which is shallow, and flows over pale sands. The beauty of the Cserna and its valley cannot be too highly extolled. It is all the more striking as the mountains seen from the rail—at least when coming from the west—are rather tame and lumpish in character, and one is quite unprepared for the change that one sees in leaving the valley of the Bela Reka (Mehadika on some maps) for that of the Cserna. On arriving one is surprised at being driven, not to the hotel of one's choice, but to a central bureau, where the rooms of all the hotels are distributed according to tariff, and where all business connected with them or with the baths is conducted. The distances at Herculesbad are so small that the awkwardness of having the clerks' office outside the hotel is rather apparent than real; so with the fact that the two principal hotels have one restaurant midway between them that serves for them and, to a certain extent, for the others also. The whole place belongs to the state, and is farmed out to a *General-Pächter*, who no doubt finds that a central bureau administers everything more economically than would be possible for several special offices. One must allow that houses, gardens, promenades are kept in good order, and that the service is on the whole as prompt as in other watering-places.

The shadow side of the whole, to one who believes in the principle of nationalities founded upon race, is that Herculesbad should be in Hungary at all. These picturesque peasants are Rumanian, as, indeed, they are almost throughout this eastern portion of the kingdom, constituting more than one-sixth of the entire population. For the rest of Hungary, two-sixths are Slav, another sixth is German or Jewish; so that the Magyars, the dominant race, form barely a third of the population. In such a mixture of races, one might content one's self with the reflection that, after all, somebody must rule, if only it could be seen that the Hungarian rule were reasonably wise and just. In fact, the country is administered upon the assumption that the interests of

the Magyars are those of the kingdom; indeed, to read the Pesh journals, one might be led to think that Magyar interests were those of the world. But this assumption agrees so little with the subject races that, unable to bear longer with the denial of justice, with arrogance, and the intolerable burden of taxation, they are emigrating in large numbers to Servia, to Rumania, to Bulgaria, to countries where they may be at home, and where it is possible to earn something more than a bare subsistence. This movement is so marked that during the last ten years, while the debt of Hungary has grown to enormous proportions, the population has remained almost absolutely stationary in numbers.

Fortunately, at Herculesbad itself the misery of this state of things cannot be seen as it can at a distance of a few miles. The people subsist upon the summer visitors, and seem to do well enough. So the future traveller who may come here to enjoy the rocks, the splendid beeches, and the spectacle of the motley crowd of pleasure-seekers, need find nothing to vex him beyond an occasional official inscription in untranslated Hungarian, which very few of the inhabitants or visitors can read.

#### THE FRENCH ARMY ORGANIZATION TESTED.

PARIS, Sept. 16, 1881.

THE general elections have had the result which was anticipated: the minority has been reduced and the majority augmented. The minority will be now composed of only 200 members—100 Royalists or Imperialists, and 100 Intransigents or Radical Republicans. The new Chamber is composed to a very great extent of the same men as the old one, only they have made more promises and their platform is positive, while at the elections which took place four years ago it had a merely negative character. There is a remarkable sameness in all the programmes which issue from the ministerial fraction of the new majority, which styles itself the Republican Left, or of the Gambettist fraction, which calls itself the Republican Union. The new deputies all speak invariably with more or less warmth of changes in the magistracy, of the future separation of Church and State, but, till this separation can be effected, of the strict observance of the Concordat; of the diminution in the time of the military service.

The clerical question is somewhat dormant just now, as the clergy preserved a noticeable silence during the elections. Still, the Ministerialists would like to continue the *Kulturkampf* rather than do anything else; they are afraid to touch the magistracy or the army, though in their proclamations to the electors they propose to do so. There is in the *Kulturkampf* a certain vagueness which makes it peculiarly eligible for those who would rather talk than act. The President of the Council, M. Jules Ferry, has made the *Kulturkampf* his own question; he is never tired of speaking of the rights of the state, of the rights of science. He is the Dr. Falk of France. He has probably not the slightest desire to go any further than the Concordat; but there is in the Gambettist camp a large number of men who would go further, who would not be satisfied to treat the clergy like a body of functionaries salaried by the state; they would rather have the State and the Church completely separated. Such a separation exists in some countries, but it has as a corollary the independence of the corporate bodies. In France the enemies of the Church would deprive it of its actual salary, which was a compensation for all the Church property confiscated during the Revolution, and they do not recognize the liberty of the

corporations—testamentary liberty, the right of entail—none, in fact, of the guarantees of the churches in other countries. They go so far even as to claim all the cathedrals and churches of France as municipal buildings, as well as all the presbyteries; they would turn the Church naked into the streets, deprive it of its meagre salary, deprive it of all its houses and public places of meeting. They would not allow the Church, as such, to receive any legacy, to organize any system of public teaching or any system of public assistance.

The fact is that these followers of M. Paul Bert and others are absolutely hostile to every Christian church; they look upon all churches as mere schools of superstition and tyranny; they believe only in social science, and they have undertaken to make mankind happy without providing for its spiritual wants. Time only will show what may become of a country in which the new positivist, materialistic doctrines, instead of remaining in the abstract domains of science, take possession of the whole machinery of government; in which the spiritual doctrines which have always been looked upon as the refuge and the consolation of the poor, the weak, the oppressed, will come to be considered as mere phantoms, and mankind will ignore everything except its appetites and its rights. Our generation cannot see the full development of all such ideas, because there is something of the old man—I mean of the spiritual man—even in M. Paul Bert. He can vivisect dogs and crocodiles, but he cannot cut out of his own flesh the seeds which have been planted in it by the past.

The attitude of the French clergy in the present situation is so submissive that we cannot expect many tragical or sensational incidents in the continuation of our *Kulturkampf*. The Chamber will have to find some other question than the clerical. The military question will hardly be very convenient, as we have now Tunis on our hands; and though I do not believe that Tunis will become the Mexico of our Republic, it would be idle to deny that the expectations of our diplomacy have not been fulfilled. We expected to enter Tunis, as the French say, *comme dans du beurre*; but we find that we must occupy the country with a large army, since the authority of the old Bey is merely nominal. Next month operations will begin in earnest, and we hear every day of the departure of fresh troops for the seat of war. The preparations for this Tunisian war have been extremely troublesome. The French army is now divided into nineteen *corps d'armée*, none of which can be mobilized separately. The reserves can only be called for the whole army, and not by the President, but by the Chambers. The mobilization of the whole French army is a measure which can only be thought of in a great national danger. When the Minister of War needs troops for Algiers he can only depend on a certain number of purely Algerine regiments, such as the regiments of Zouaves, Spahis, and Turcos; for the rest, he must call French regiments, or parts of regiments, detailed from the seventeen *corps d'armée*. In this case he had to call in the fourth battalions of almost all our infantry regiments—the depot battalions; but these had to be placed on a war footing; and, in order to do this, a large number of the men belonging to the three first battalions had to be merged in the depot. The depot, which is in ordinary times the centre of recruiting, and the most immovable part of the regiment, became the active part at the expense of the whole regiment. You can easily imagine that such an operation could only take place with much disorder and confusion. The regiments were completely disorganized in order to furnish fighting battalions; and the

colonels complain bitterly that they have now only skeletons of regiments in their hands. The fighting battalions have been one by one sent to Algiers. Only a few days ago I met one which was on its way from Dunkirk to Tunis. Once arrived on African soil, these battalions must be united again into regiments, and then new difficulties begin, as they don't know their new commanders, and wear different numbers. They remind us, in fact, of our *régiments de marche* in the Army of the Loire in our last campaign.

All these difficulties, no doubt, will be overcome, as the present war is not against a well-organized European army; we have only before us brave savages, without any organization. The general public, however, and especially the chiefs of the army, cannot but be moved by the defects of the existing organization. We had totally ignored the possibility of an African war when we copied the Prussian system in 1872. We see now that besides our European army, with its *corps d'armée* and its reserves, we must find the means of making an African army on totally different principles. We must augment the number of our Zouaves and Spahis, and of the negro regiments; we must have a light artillery corps. We shall find the elements of this army in the native population and in Corsica. It must be formed of men serving during many years, and attracted by premiums and by the hope of pensions. With a permanent African army, it will be easy to hold Tunis as well as Algeria; without it, our African colonies will also be a source of danger and of uneasiness.

I will not touch now this difficult subject of the African colonies. I am personally of opinion that it is the mission of all the Christian countries of the Mediterranean basin to do on the African soil what the Spaniards once did in Spain. At any rate, though the expedition to Tunis will be attacked by the Opposition in the Chambers, nobody will be found now to recommend the abandonment of Tunis. The question of the army comes before the Chamber with an imperative character; and though it is in the nature of democratic governments to diminish as much as possible the burden of the military service, I doubt if the Chamber will do much at present in this direction. What, then, can it do? The Republicans will probably be content at first to alter the organization of the magistracy in France. They are angry at seeing everywhere on the judicial bench men who were notoriously hostile to their party, when their party was only a party of sedition and of insurrection; men who administered the law under Napoleon III., some even under Louis Philippe. While the public prosecutor, the *Procureur de la République*, can be removed at the will of the Minister of Justice, the judge is still irremovable. He is ill paid, but generally belongs to a good family, and has a good fortune; he lives in an atmosphere of quiet dignity. In the provinces nobody equals the judge in independence and in consideration. He bears a very high character, and the administration of the laws in France is perhaps as perfect as it can be in any human community.

The Chamber would do better if it applied its energy to economical questions. It has become absolutely urgent to settle our commercial relations with England and with Italy. It is almost a shame that the conversion of our five per cent. stock should not yet be made. This stock stood some time ago as high as 120, and is now worth about 116. The Government has a right to repay it at par or to convert it into some stock bearing a lower interest. Why is it not done? In the present condition of France there is no excuse for a delay which costs the people a large sum of money every year. The Republicans are

always boasting, and they have a right to do so, of the financial prosperity of France; they can give no better proof of it than by the conversion of the state funds. They can do it better at the beginning of a parliamentary session, as they have now four years before them during which their hands are completely free.

## Correspondence.

### GROWTH UNDER BLUE GLASS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Believers in the blue-glass theory—of whom there are some even yet—might read with profit Dr. Siemens's address before the late meeting of the British Association, describing his experiments with the electric light to ascertain the effect of constant light on the growth of plants. In one experiment he placed plants in several compartments covered with different colored glass. He says:

"The relative progress of the plants was noted from day to day, and the differences of effect upon the development of the plants were sufficiently striking to justify the following conclusions: Under the clear glass the largest amount of and most vigorous growth was induced; the yellow glass came next in order, but the plants, though nearly equal in size, were greatly inferior in color and thickness of stem to those under the clear glass; the red glass gives rise to lanky growth and yellowish leaf; while the blue glass produces still more lanky growth and sickly leaf."

Yours truly,

A.

SPRINGFIELD, Mo., Oct. 1, 1881.

### GARFIELD AND GUTEAU.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: To-day the national flag is everywhere draped in mourning, and the hearts of the people keep pace with the majestic funeral procession as it moves towards the open grave at Cleveland. It was once said by an eloquent Southerner at a great political gathering in this city at which there were representatives with their flags from every State in the Union: "We rejoice not because our banners are many, but because our hearts are one." It may be truly said to-day that in the depth of the people's sorrow they still rejoice because now their banner and their hearts are one. The blood of President Garfield, whether shed by a madman or a murderer, has sealed in blood the unity of the nation. And such has been the sorrowing sympathy with the American people of all the peoples, that the brotherhood of nations is felt now throughout the world as it never was felt before.

But the tragic drama has not yet ended. It remains that impartial justice be done on the wretched man by whom the life of the President was taken. Not a few inconsiderate persons, and some newspapers echoing and stimulating the feelings of the hour, are impatient that any obstacles should be interposed between Guiteau and a speedy sentence of death.

The Nation has not been carried away by this impulse. On the 7th of July last, after announcing the deadly assault, it added: "All the details of the crime show a cool deliberation which in an ordinary case and with any adequate motive would remove all doubts on the subject of the prisoner's sanity; but there are features in it which look the other way." The Nation then proceeded to detail such facts as had come to light. Since then nothing has occurred to remove the doubts thus expressed, and they must remain until a full and careful trial is had in court with the aid of able counsel.

The events which have subsequently occurred



in the jail where Guiteau is confined have, so far as they are known, only served to confuse the public mind. It is plain that he has not been treated like other prisoners charged with similar offences, and that restrictions have been imposed which were not necessary for his safe-keeping; and the struggle between him and his keeper on the 17th of August, in which he is described as attempting to stab his keeper with a knife, and the latter as having accidentally discharged his pistol, has not been satisfactorily explained. The attempt of one of the military guard, set to protect Guiteau, to kill him by firing into his cell was a startling outrage. Until judgment has been pronounced a prisoner is confined for safe-keeping, and not for punishment. However base the accused may be, however strong the facts appearing against him, and however distinguished his victim, the law wisely and humanely holds over him its protecting shield, and declares him to be innocent until he is in court proved to be guilty.

The execution of the madman Bellingham for the assassination in 1812 of Perceval, the Prime Minister, has left a stain on English justice. The trial by court-martial and the execution of Mrs. Surratt as an accessory to the death of President Lincoln have left a still deeper stain on American justice. It is devoutly to be hoped that the trial of Guiteau, which will be memorable in the annals of the country, will be worthy of a great, magnanimous, and just people.

G. W. B.

BALTIMORE, Sept. 26, 1881.

#### THE SCIENTIFIC MODE OF TEACHING MATHEMATICS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your review of Professor Simon Newcomb's new work on the Higher Arithmetic, or Algebra, you speak of his method as more direct than that of the great bulk of mathematical text-books. You praise him especially for the arithmetic definition which he gives of the sine and cosine, making them wholly independent of triangles and of the circle also. I have not seen the book itself; but the great desideratum in mathematical text-books, whether on algebra or on geometry, is one that will cut loose entirely from the history of mathematics; that will not teach the branches of the science simply in the order in which they have been discovered and developed, but which will take up the mathematical knowledge of the present day, and teach it simply in the order in which the simpler truths serve as demonstrations for the more complex and distant.

This want was felt by Professor J. J. Littrow, the Imperial Astronomer at Vienna, as long as fifty years ago, and he published two text-books—a larger with some pretence to completeness, and a shorter practical abstract, in which he laid down the plan in the introductory preface, and attempted to carry it out in the course of each treatise, that all the old prejudices about “lower” and “higher” mathematics should be disregarded. He introduces the theory of functions, their development into an infinite series, progressing in the powers of the original variable, and differentials, almost at the very beginning. After explaining logarithms and exponentials, he proceeds to define the cosine and sine of a number: the former as half the sum of the number of which the given number, multiplied by the square root of  $-1$  is the Napierian logarithm, and of the reciprocal of that number; the latter as half the difference of the number having such a logarithm and of its reciprocal, divided by that impossible root. In his algebra he gives but few examples for equations, and avoids those playful, worthless puzzles, in which ordinary algebras

abound; in his geometry he avoids those problems and theorems that lead nowhere.

The books were both published in German, while a work of Littrow's on the higher branches alone (“Calculus and its Applications”) appeared in Latin. They were, however, all very slovenly in their details, and highly unscientific in leaving theorems unproved the demonstration of which is of the very essence of mathematical science. For this and other reasons the efforts of Professor Littrow have had very little effect, and the mode of teaching mathematics is now almost as historical, and I might say as nonsensical, as it was fifty or a hundred years ago.

When quite young, I began to work on an English treatise in which Littrow's ideas should be worked out to their legitimate conclusions: nothing should be admitted that was a mere *cul de sac*, leading nowhere either in theory or practice; nothing should be demonstrated otherwise than in the most thoroughly scientific way; no examples should be given for the solution of equations that had no practical value. Was it my general want of energy, or was it the difficulty of the undertaking?—I never brought it to an end. At last I came to the deliberate conclusion that a man pursuing an entirely different profession should not meddle with mathematics, and gave up the job, putting my manuscripts away far out of sight. I wish some man like Professor Newcomb, whose authority would be followed, would take up this task, and show, once for all, how the mathematical science of the present day can be taught. There must be no waste in proving theorems by constructions that can be more readily worked out by analysis, or *vice versa*; there must be no fanciful illustrations where nature and art supply so many real cases. The scholars ought never to be led to expect integer numbers as the roots of equations; for where nature herself gives the problem the solution is always broken, badly broken, incommensurable. The scholar will never say then: “Oh! I can do this without algebra”; he will see that the science teaches him a way to find what could not be found without it. He will have time to reach the applications of mathematics to the laws of nature, such as we find in “pure mechanics,” to the problems of social life, in the doctrine of probabilities, or to the movements and appearances of the heavenly bodies. Under such methods those who attend classes in mathematics will conceive a respect for the science which they cannot possibly have while in most of its manifestations to the young mind it hardly rises above Chinese puzzles or the now happily forgotten 13, 14, 15. As I have found that the study of pure mathematics ennobles the mind, and drives out low and impure thoughts, I should feel very thankful to any master in the science who would undertake the task of reforming the mode of teaching it—a task which I found too heavy for my own weak shoulders—so that a greater percentage of human beings might drink in the refreshing dew of the most truthful of all systems of truth. With old Boyle I firmly believe:  $\delta \theta \delta \delta$  γεωμετρίας.

L. N. D.

LOUISVILLE, KY., Sept. 26, 1881.

[It must be evident to every one who reads “L. N. D.'s” forcible and interesting letter that it suggests a number of questions the satisfactory discussion of which would form the subject of a book rather than of a brief note in the *Nation*. What we shall say is not so much for the purpose of confirming or refuting his opinions as to show that the subject may be looked at from different points of view, and that there are many encouraging

signs of the future realization of his wishes. First, then, we doubt whether any science can be properly learned or taught by one who cuts entirely loose from its history. The individual must, in many respects, travel the road which the race has travelled; but he need not grope through all the forests, wade through all the mire-holes, and lose himself in all the by-paths which have hindered and harassed past generations. We will give a single specimen, which lies near at hand, of what we consider the truly historical method. The school-algebra of Professor Wentworth, the more elaborate treatise of Professor Newcomb, and the “Calculus of Variations” of Mr. Carll were published almost simultaneously this summer, and have all been noticed in the *Nation*. Each author in his preface makes substantially the same statement as to the method he has pursued. We quote Mr. Carll's, as at once the most compact and complete:

“When a new principle is to be introduced for the first time, a simple problem involving it is first proposed, and the principle is established when required in the discussion of this problem. This having been followed by other problems of the same class, the general theory of the subject is finally given and illustrated by one or two of the most difficult problems attainable; after which another principle is introduced in like manner” (p. iv.)

The statements of Professors Wentworth and Newcomb are essentially the same. Here are Professor Wentworth, for many years a teacher in one of our oldest and best-known high-schools, Professor Newcomb, a practical teacher and of world-wide reputation as a man of science, and Mr. Carll, also a teacher, and who, literally, has double and triple integrals at his fingers' ends, all agreeing as to the best method, at least in one important point. Now let us see what has been the course of history. We quote from the introduction to Professor Jellett's treatise on the calculus of variations:

“This, indeed, is the ordinary history of the great improvements in mathematical science. Some problem, physical or mathematical, is proposed, which is found to be insoluble by known methods; and in the solution of such a problem a new principle is necessarily introduced. It is soon observed that this principle is not limited in its application to the particular question which occasioned its discovery, and it is then stated in an abstract form and applied to problems of gradually increasing generality. Other principles similar in their nature are added; and the original principle itself receives such modifications and extensions as are from time to time suggested by the various problems to which it is applied. Finally, these several parts are grouped together, a uniform system of notation is adopted, and the principles of the new method become entitled to rank as a new science.”

Secondly. In regard to the waste of time over “playful, worthless” “Chinese puzzles,” Professor Newcomb, in a passage in his preface, too long to quote, has expressed much the same idea, and has assigned to “problems” a very subordinate part.

Thirdly. We should be very careful in deciding what parts of the science of mathematics “lead nowhere.” The theory of the conic sections had been cultivated for centuries almost as a mere matter of curiosity, when Kepler's discovery of the laws of planetary motion, and Newton's theory of gravitation, gave to the conic sections an importance

in astronomy and other branches of science which can hardly be overestimated.

Fourthly. The high opinion which "L. N. D." has of the moral effect of mathematical studies we cordially endorse. We believe, nay, we know, there are those who have found a refuge from petty cares, consolation for wrecked hopes, even relief from torturing physical pain, in those sublime speculations which "lead nowhere" except to comfort and peace.

Lastly. We say, in all sincerity, that the perusal of "L. N. D.'s" letter has convinced us that when circumstances forced upon him the conclusion that it was his duty to abandon his mathematical studies, the number of promising mathematicians in the world was decreased by one.—ED. NATION.]

## Notes.

MACMILLAN & Co. have in preparation a new work, 'The Graphic Arts,' by Philip Gilbert Hamerton, of which limited editions will be issued in 8vo and in large-paper, and which will contain some fifty illustrations, mostly in facsimile, after masters now and old. Besides conveying the technical information to be expected from the title, the author will aim "to show the influence of technical conditions upon the expression of thought and feeling." The illustrations will imitate lead-pencil, silver-point, various chalks, charcoal, pen-and-ink, pen with wash, sepia, woodcuts, lithographs, etchings, mezzotint, aquatint, line and stipple, etc., etc.—White & Stokes, 1152 Broadway, New York, will publish 'Esau Hardery,' a novel by W. O. Stoddard, author of 'Dab Kinzer'; 'Watching for Santa Claus,' by Mrs. Martha J. Lamb; and 'Good Times,' a series of designs by Miss Dora Wheeler, part in color and part in outline, the latter on water-color paper, and the subject of three prizes offered by the publishers for the best coloring of them.—A "humorous and dashing brochure, profusely illustrated," and bearing the title of 'Summer Rambles,' is announced by A. Williams & Co., Boston. It purports to relate the adventures of two "well-known Boston gentlemen through Florida."—"French Dramatists of the Nineteenth Century," a volume in which Mr. J. Brander Matthews considers the course of modern French drama from the Romantic revival to the present Naturalistic outbreak, will be published shortly by Charles Scribner's Sons in New York, and in London by Remington & Co.—Mr. Dutton Cook, one of the most competent of English dramatic critics—best known, perhaps, in this country from his amusing 'Book of the Play'—has gathered together a number of brief histrionic biographical sketches, which will shortly be published, in two volumes, as 'Hours with the Players.'—Mr. Austin Dobson is preparing for the "Parchment Series" of C. Kegan Paul & Co. a volume of selections from the British essayists, neglecting the merely literary papers, and seeking especially to gather together those describing manners and customs and social characteristics. The volume will have a frontispiece by Mr. Randolph Caldecott, and will be introduced by a brief preface of the editor's.—For the same series Mr. Andrew Lang is selecting a volume of Poe's verse. Mr. Lang and Mr. S. H. Butcher, whose noteworthy prose translation of the 'Odyssey' will be remembered, are now engaged on a prose translation of the 'Iliad.'—Ellis & White, of London, announce for immediate publication 'Ballads and Son-

nets,' by Dante Gabriel Rossetti, and also a new edition, with additions, of Mr. Rossetti's 'Poems.' Both volumes will be bound from designs by the poet.

—A fourth edition (since 1874) of Mr. Frank Vincent, jr.'s 'Land of the White Elephant' has just been published by Harper & Bros. The book has been considerably enlarged by a supplement in which the history of the several countries of Farther India is brought down to date; but this portion is remarkable chiefly for the confident decision of the questions involved in the parallelism between Buddhism and Christianity, and the author's architectural and ethnological speculations in regard to the ruins of Cambodia. We should not consider the book less valuable without these.—That "the great public is sick of reprints" has not proved true in the case of Prof. Goldwin Smith's privately-printed 'Lectures and Essays,' published early in the year at Toronto. The "American" demand for it has been such as to induce the author to arrange for its sale on this side of the line by Macmillan & Co.—Wittebmann Brothers, 45 Murray Street, send us a pocket 'Centennial Album of Yorktown and of Richmond, Va.,' a guide and a souvenir for such as may attend the coming celebration on the historic battle-ground of two wars. The subjects for pictorial representation have been well chosen and neatly executed, and a map has not been forgotten.—Mr. L. B. Thomas, 409 West Twentieth Street, has become the American agent of 'Putzger's Historischer Schul-Atlas,' comprising twenty-eight leading and forty-eight side-maps, and to be recommended for the broader aspects of politico-historical changes. Mr. Thomas has overcome an objection to its use by those who are ignorant of German, by supplying a translation of the table of contents and of the geographical terminology, and has added a comparative scale of miles.—No. 93 of the Berlin Geographical Society's *Zeitschrift* contains a map showing the Weser delta about the year 1511, with the present lines of the mainland, and one exhibiting the German communities nestled in the extreme north of Italy, between Lago Maggiore and Monte Rosa. They both illustrate articles devoted to their subjects. A third article may be signalized—G. Niederlein's exposure of significant errors in South American maps. It shows how the ablest geographers are led astray in their delineations, and how their imitators perpetuate their mistakes.—In addition to the usual charts of the State Engineer and Surveyor's annual report on the New York canals, that for 1881 gives a useful map showing the chain of American lakes and the canals—whether of Canada or of the United States—connected with them. An indication of the wheat country to the north and west of Lake Superior is perhaps intended to make the British farmer pause and reflect.—Mr. Frederick Prime, jr., Ph.D., has again issued a supplementary list to his valuable Catalogue of Official Reports upon Geological Surveys of the United States and Territories, and of British North America. The entries are for the most part not recent. Mr. Prime's address is 220 South Third Street, Philadelphia.—We made a serious omission when describing the Q. P. Index to the *Eclectic Magazine*, which we should have said includes also (and this adds greatly to the value of it) vols. 37-148—i.e., the last twenty-eight years—of the cognate periodical, the *Living Age*.—Westermann's *Illustrirte Deutsche Monatshefte* holds a little jubilee over its 300th number, completing its fiftieth volume.—It is unfortunate that Sainte-Beuve's complete works are not published by one firm, who would have an interest in making a uniform and carefully-edited edition. However, MM. Garnier Frères, the publishers of the

'Causeries du Lundi,' 'Portraits de Femmes,' and 'Portraits Littéraires,' have now got out an analytical index to these nineteen volumes, prepared by M. Ch. Pierrot. It fills 388 double-column pages, and is preceded by two hitherto uncollected articles of Sainte-Beuve—one on Madame Tastu, the other on Le Sage and 'Gil Blas'—and by a few other odds and ends of criticism.

—There is always apt to be a good deal of mystery about the profits of dramatic authors and poets. The former are generally believed to be greater now than at any previous period in the history of the drama. The latter are supposed to have risen a little, but not in proportion to dramatic profits. The account given by Mr. McKee Rankin of the pecuniary history of the "Danites" shows that the public have still a good deal to learn on these subjects. The play was announced on its appearance as the joint work of Mr. Joaquin Miller and Mr. Rankin, and it has met with great success. Mr. Rankin now says that Mr. Miller never had anything to do with the play except to contribute the use of his name, for which he has been paid \$5,000. Mr. Miller seems in the sale of his name to have behaved in a very handsome way, for all he insisted upon was that the play should be read to him "so that he might at least know something about what he was going to be father of." On its being read to him "he was perfectly satisfied, never making one suggestion of addition or alteration." Mr. Rankin claims the entire authorship himself, though he admits that he "hired a literary man" to do the amanuensis work at \$25 an act. This story, we regret to say, is alleged to be open to the objection that it is inconsistent with an earlier account of the origin of the play, in which Mr. Rankin gave a curious description of the manuscript as it came to him from the hands of the great poet. It would be interesting to know a little more about the "literary man" and his "amanuensis work"; he ought to know who wrote the play. The sale of Mr. Miller's name, if it was sold, shows in a rather striking way the increasing commercial value of poetical reputations. There is many a national poet who would be glad to go into dramatic collaboration of this kind on such terms. Indeed, it is difficult to see why it should be confined to poets. Who would not go to see a play—let us say—announced as the joint work of George Bancroft and Lester Wallack, or President Arthur and Augustin Daly, or George Bliss and Edgar Fawcett?

—Cincinnati will have her fifth biennial musical festival on May 16, 17, 18, and 19, 1882. As usual, there will be seven performances, three of which will be in the afternoon and four in the evening. The orchestra, consisting of over one hundred and fifty performers, will be substantially the same as at the last festival. The chorus of six hundred trained singers, which was organized in 1880, has since that time been under the most careful training for the fifth festival. Frau Materna and other distinguished soloists will be secured, some of whom will also appear at the festivals which are to take place the same month in New York and Chicago, under Mr. Thomas's direction. The programmes at Cincinnati will include, on the first night, Mozart's Requiem, Beethoven's Eighth Symphony, and Handel's Dettingen Te Deum; on the second night, Bach's Passion music; on the third, Schubert's Ninth Symphony, Schumann's scenes from Goethe's "Faust," Wagner's "Faust" overture, Berlioz's "The Fall of Troy," and a prize composition which will be selected from eighteen works now submitted to the judgment of Mr. Thomas, M. Saint-Saëns, and Carl Reinecke, of Leipzig. The programmes of the afternoon concerts will be published hereafter.



—Besides the usual number of music festivals which take place in England every autumn, there has been one this year which has been aptly designated as a musical invasion. It was organized by a number of the Orpheon societies of France and Belgium, who came across the Channel to compete at Brighton for various prizes, mostly contributed by wealthy citizens of Brighton, and consisting of medals, silver-gilt wreaths, and other objects of art. All the various classes into which the Orpheons are divided—such as brass bands, mixed bands, orchestras, and vocal societies—were represented, about two thousand members of various societies having come without expecting pecuniary compensation for their travelling expenses, but solely impelled by their love of art, their ambition, and perhaps also a desire to see a little of the world. This is the more noteworthy in view of the fact that most of the members of these societies are farmers and artisans, and therefore amateurs, professionals being strictly excluded except under certain peculiar conditions. One of the rules of these contests prescribes that every society must read at sight a piece composed for the occasion and kept in a sealed package, only ten minutes being allowed the conductor and performers to read over their parts before executing them. The English papers unite in their praise of the way in which this test was stood by most of the societies, as well as of the excellence of their performances in general. England has just as good vocal societies as those heard on this occasion, but she has no instrumental societies comparable to them. The Brighton festival might have been made more interesting still if some of the English choral societies had been admitted to the contest; but this was prevented by the very strict rules of the Orpheon societies embodied in a code of forty-four articles. As for the artistic result of the festival, the *London Times* says that the style of art cultivated by the French and Belgian singers is not of the highest or even of a very high order, because art when taken up by workmen and mechanics is apt to become itself mechanical, as proved by the case of the Meistersingers in mediæval times. These societies, however, provide the raw material for an artist to work with, and they make a love of the art so general in a country as to give rise to the remarkable phenomenon of an excellent opera or concert institute being in France or Germany supported by a town of only a few thousand inhabitants.

—Forty-four years ago there was a lively little controversy going on between Mr. Panizzi, then an extra-assistant at the British Museum, and the Royal Society. Mr. Fagan's report of the matter is the report of a biographer, and is designed to show the capable cataloguer at war with a powerful society, and winning the day by the force of his character and the righteousness of his cause. But now Mr. C. Tomlinson writes to *Nature* to show another side of the story: "Mr. Panizzi insisted on adding to some of the items of the catalogue original comments of his own, to which the Library Committee justly objected as committing the Society to opinions of doubtful value." One instance Mr. Tomlinson gives in which, certainly, Panizzi in a single mistake had included ignorance and carelessness; but it will not do to reason from a single instance. Mr. Tomlinson says there were others, but does not give them. It did not need his letter to prove that Panizzi had an absolute confidence in himself. What we do learn is that his self-confidence was not always justified. Besides the erroneous note cited, Mr. Tomlinson recalls from his own experience what appears to have been a momentary slip of Mr. Panizzi's memory in regard to a famous French chemical author, which, however, unluckily for his post-

humous fame, Mr. Panizzi ensured his hearers' not forgetting by treating him with, we fear we must say, his not unusual discourtesy. Still, one would like to see a few more instances of error in the notes which he roundly abused the Committee for not accepting. After all, perhaps the Committee had a right to decide what sort of a catalogue they would print, as they were to pay for it. But the main burden of Panizzi's complaint was that they did not pay him according to agreement till after repeated demands and a threat of legal proceedings, and this Mr. Tomlinson does not at all explain away; so that the effect of his letter is not so favorable to his friends as it is damaging to their opponent.

—One of the English "society journals" has again broached the question, which seems always coming up for discussion and yet which is never decided, whether women, as they become more and more emancipated, are likely to become smokers. The *Herald* attempts to settle it *ex cathedra* by saying that "the answer depends upon whether the young woman will want to smoke; if she does, she will." In other words, she is not any longer likely to be prevented by her deference to man's opinion, and her course in the matter must hereafter be determined solely by her like or dislike of the habit. But this overlooks the fact that one of the strongest permanent motives which influence women in society is the desire for admiration from the other sex. Women whose enlightenment and self-reliance have brought them to the point of not any longer caring for what "the men" think about their behavior will undoubtedly smoke or not, as they like tobacco or not; but with the great majority of them one of the strongest influences that actuate their conduct must continue to be the love of man's admiration and approval, and with regard to such a habit as smoking it can be almost demonstrated that its being taken up by women will depend chiefly upon the feeling of men about it. It is pre-eminently a social habit, and secret smoking is never likely to have much charm for anybody, so that it cannot become common among women—as for instance opium eating might—without the fact being generally known. At present there is no dispute that Americans and Englishmen, fond as they are of smoking themselves, dislike the spectacle presented by a lady's smoking. It is distasteful to them. It looks fast and disreputable, and they "frown upon it." A woman who smokes knows that this feeling exists, and consequently smokes either in a state of defiance, or solitarily with a fear of detection and exposure. Now either of these states of mind is fatal to the full enjoyment of tobacco, which requires a mind entirely free from care and anxiety. Hence few Anglo-Saxon women who smoke can enjoy smoking as it ought to be enjoyed, while with the majority the masculine sentiment on the subject prevents them from wishing to enjoy it. If the "coming woman" is to smoke, the masculine feeling with regard to it must in some way first be modified.

—Professor Wm. Dwight Whitney's 'Index Verborum to the published text of the Atharva-Veda' is now published as volume xii. of the *Journal of the American Oriental Society*, and is a work of 383 pp. in double columns. Volume xi. of the Society's *Journal* is not yet published. From the introduction we learn that the work was begun in 1851, when the Atharvan manuscripts at Berlin were undertaken by the professor in a way that led afterwards to the publication of the text of that veda by him in connection with Professor Roth, of Tübingen; and the collection and arrangement of it occupied more or less of his time up to 1873. The index was to form part of the second volume in connection

with other indexes, notes, translation, etc.; but the second volume waits the collection of other materials and the freedom of Professor Roth, and the publication of the index seemed to need the auspices of some learned society. Hence its publication by the Oriental Society. The first volume of the 'Atharva-Veda Sanhita' was published at Berlin in 1856, and it was followed in 1862 by the publication, as vol. vii. of the *Journal of the American Oriental Society*, of Professor Whitney's own edition of the 'Atharva-Veda-Prātiçākhyā,' text, translation, and notes. The last 40 pp. of the present work are given to a reversed index of roots and stems (index of finals). The various niceties of the work and the difficult labor it bears witness to are rather for the specialist to point out. No small part of this labor consisted in making the printed work, which is in the Roman character, accurate. It may be remarked, however, that the words "published text" in the title refer to another text up to this time represented by a single inaccurate and mostly unaccented MS. on strips of birch bark, now in Professor Roth's hands, and hunted up at his instance a few years ago in Cashmir. The word also refers to the fact that due account is taken of readings of the Roth-Whitney text which do not rest on MS. authority, part of the last two books consisting of "such utter nonsense" that it did not seem advisable to the editors to let the text pass through their hands without some amendment of its numerous and obvious false readings. On the other hand, there are parts of the text of which the material is not included in the index. The most important instance of this is the greater part of the twentieth book, which is made up of extracts taken bodily from the established text of the Rig-Veda, and it seemed to be useless to burden the Atharvan Index with words not peculiar to it. Aside from these exceptions, the Index is intended to be a complete one, giving every word and form (even down to *ca*, and the cases of the demonstrative and relative pronouns) in every instance of its occurrence.

—The superiority of the Germans in learning, and their incapacity for writing anything which in style and treatment is not heavy, dull, and awkward, have become proverbial. There are, however, exceptions on both sides of the equation; there are plenty of Germans who treat serious subjects superficially, and there are a few who write as cleverly as any French or English writer of the same calibre. Heine will at once occur to the mind as the best instance of this; but since his day no one, we suppose, has used his language so advantageously as has Paul Lindau, from its foundation in 1872 till the present day editor of the only German paper which could claim a place in the same class as the *Saturday Review* or *Spectator*—the *Gegenwart*. Many readers besides Germans will learn with regret that Herr Lindau withdrew from this journal October 1.

—While speaking of literary journalism in Germany, it may be worth while, in view of the inaccurate statements frequently printed in this country, to say something on the subject in general, not ignoring in so doing the German-American press. Of the hundreds of Americans who habitually read German books and papers, very few know of the existence of the German periodicals published in this country. Of these the oldest and best known is the *New-Yorker Belletristisches Journal*, a sixteen-page weekly. The eight-page *Sonntagsblatt* of the *New York Staats-Zeitung* is of the same character, though less well printed; and to these has just been added a third, the *New York Figaro*, which typographically is more attractive than either. In all of these the three prominent features are

the serial novel (which in the *Belletristisches Journal* is often a translation of the popular American novel of the day—at present Mrs. Burnett's 'Fair Barbarian'), criticism of the German stage, at home and abroad, and an easily-read three or four-column article on things in general, corresponding to the *chronique* of Paris papers, and called simply "New York" or "New Yorker Revue." The first number (September 17) of the *Figaro* contains also an article on the most popular of German magazines, the *Gartenlaube*, to which the editor of the *Journal*, Mr. Udo Brachvogel, is a frequent contributor. Among the many proofs of the thirst for knowledge which fills all Americans (except the characters in Mr. Edgar Fawcett's novels), and the wide extent of American culture, the enormous popularity of our magazines, and especially *Harper's Magazine*, is often instanced. Except, however, for an occasional article or novel which seems hardly at home in *Harper's*, the *Gartenlaube* is fully equal to it in literary merit, while its circulation exceeds *Harper's* by one hundred thousand or more. Nor is this enormous popularity due to absence of competition, as we shall see later on. The illustrations are not so good as American woodcuts, but they are good; the miscellaneous articles are generally valuable and always interesting, and, when upon political or religious topics, pervaded by a self-contained but decided liberalism; while the novels, thanks to Mrs. Wister, are as well known in this country as they are at home. Critics have often praised this lady, not only for her literary skill, but for the extraordinary tact displayed in the choice of tales for translation. Praise for the latter, however, is due not to her, but to the lately deceased editor of the *Gartenlaube*, who, as was some years since pointed out in the *Gegenwart*, called into life a new school of novelists, mostly women, writing pseudonymously, and some of whom—"E. Marlitt," for instance, and "E. Werner"—are to-day popular in every European language. It is of course unnecessary to say that this opinion of the *Gartenlaube* is not held universally. The late Johannes Huber, the Bavarian Old Catholic, deemed it sacrilegious and impertinent, and the *Figaro* writer says it represents merely superficial culture and slow politics, while it cramps and emasculates those of its contributors who show signs of originality, and prostitutes its columns to dishonest money-getting by means of skilfully-disguised advertisements.

—We have little room left in which to speak of other periodicals. *Ueber Land und Meer* enjoys great and well-deserved popularity, being much superior to the *Gartenlaube* in illustrations, but generally inferior in literary contents, especially in its fiction. The *Deutsches Familienblatt* and *Daheim* are close and fairly successful imitators of the *Gartenlaube*. The Stuttgart monthly, *Freya*, now dead, was, aside from fiction, better than any of these. Of the now existing monthlies the oldest is *Westermann's*, a periodical of the same style as the ante-bellum *Harper*. It began publication shortly before *Harper's*, and, singularly enough, both adopted the design for their covers from the long since deceased *Bentley's Miscellany*. The *Deutsches Magazin*, of Berlin, was very good during its short life, as was also the still living *Salon* (Leipzig) till within a year or two. The less popular journals, the *Deutsche Revue*, the *Deutsche Rundschau*, *Unsere Zeit*, the *Grenzboten*, *Im Neuen Reich*, and Lindau's ambitious *Nord und Süd*, are too well known to need mention here.

—Seven cities disputed the honor of the birthplace of Homer. They were all pretenders, if

M. Théophile Cailleux is right. In his 'Belges et Bataves, leur origine, leur haute importance dans la civilisation primitive,' he has restored the poet to his true country—Belgium! Schliemann has been wasting his money in digging for Troy in Asia Minor; it was in England, near Cambridge. The *Ægean* was the German Ocean; Ithaca, Cadiz. Homer wrote in Greek, and not in French or Flemish or Walloon, as he would do nowadays, because Greek was the original language of the whole Atlantic coast. Those who maintain the superiority of scientific over classical studies because there is no room for discoveries in the latter, must seek a new argument.

—In illustration of the extremes of climate which the past month exhibited within the boundaries of the United States, we extract the following from a private letter written by a member of a scientific party in the Northwest: "On the 6th inst. [September], we were caught in a snow-storm—eight or ten inches—and this was followed by cold so intense as to slaughter the migratory birds on all sides. The wrens, bluebirds, sparrows, etc., were so chilled as to allow us to pick them from the ground or bushes. You can imagine how much we enjoyed the weather, in summer outfit, without fire or tents."

—The final reports of the Norwegian North Atlantic Expedition are just being received here. Those on Chemistry, by Hercules Tornøe, and on Fishes, by R. Collett, have recently come to hand, and contain data and results of importance. The expedition, between 1876 and 1878, has been doing a valuable work in supplementing the labors of similar expeditions in other regions, and pushing their researches into seas which by common consent are the especial province of Scandinavian investigators. The researches of Svendsen, continued and greatly augmented by Tornøe, considerably enlarge our knowledge on the subject of the air, carbonic acid, and salt contained in sea-water, and are illustrated by maps showing the distribution of salt in the surface-water and at greater depths, as well as the proportion of nitrogen in the deeps. They show essentially that the distribution accords with that of the Gulf and Polar Stream waters, the larger amount of salt and the lesser of nitrogen being the property of the warmer water. The amount of air was found to be related strictly to the temperature, the pressure at great depths having no bearing on the question. The water was obtained by an ingenious, and the first really reliable, apparatus for the purpose, designed by Captain C. Wille, of the Norwegian Navy, who commanded the steamer *Vöringen*, on which the work of the expedition was done. Jacobsen's method was adopted for the determinations. The amount of oxygen was found to diminish with the depth to about 350 fathoms, after which it remains nearly constant, or, if anything, increases a little, in accordance with the results obtained by Buchanan from the *Challenger* observations.

—It was finally determined by Tornøe that, contrary to previous assumptions, free carbonic acid does not exist in ordinary sea-water, which indeed has an alkaline reaction; but that the carbonic acid was present in the form of carbonates, and in a less degree of bicarbonates, which, by the saline mixture present in the water, when at the boiling point became decomposed. These important results were obtained through new methods and by new apparatus designed by the author. In regard to saltiness, a remarkable fact was determined, which has a most important bearing on various theories of oceanic circulation—namely, that the excess of salt noticeable and expected in the warm Atlantic current

water was not confined to it, but almost equally characterized the deep strata which were reduced to the freezing point. This water is, therefore, not a Polar indraught, as has been supposed, Arctic or Antarctic, but is tropical surface-water which has been cooled; while the Polar water continues equally distinguished from it by its deficient saltiness, and appears to allow the cooled salt water of the surface to sink through it without mixing, and to form on the bottom certain portions of what has been called the "cold area." The examination of the fishes by Collett has afforded six or seven new species—a ray, a sucking pout (*Liparis*), several species of *Lycoodes*, and a translucent raspberry-colored ghost, with the ventral fins reduced to long bifid filaments attached to the throat, and with no scales, which was called *Rhodichthys regina*. It was brought up from a depth of a mile and a half in the open sea between Jan Mayen and Finmark. The majority of the fishes belonged to the cod, blenny, sculpin, soft cod (*Lycoodes*), and flat-fish families, and they comprised in all thirty-two kinds, whose food was found to be chiefly minute crustacea. Both these reports are elegantly printed and illustrated, with the text in parallel columns of Norwegian and English. Others are expected before long.

#### PARTON'S LIFE OF VOLTAIRE.—I.

*Life of Voltaire*. By James Parton. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

WHEN Mr. Parton appears as an author before the tribunal of literary criticism the judge must at once feel, if he be endowed with any acumen or with any sense of justice, that the case is one which it is difficult to dispose of with perfect fairness; for Mr. Parton has produced a book which is at once one of the worst and one of the best of biographies. The workmanship is in several points deplorably poor, yet the article produced is in many respects deserving of high praise. Of Mr. Parton's volumes it may with absolute truth be said that "you neither can praise them nor blame them too much." A reviewer, therefore, who wishes to act justly at once by the public, who have a right to discriminating criticism, and by a meritorious author, who has a claim to a due meed of praise, finds no other course open to him than to point out with unmistakable clearness what are the defects of Mr. Parton's literary workmanship, and then to dwell with equal emphasis on the merits of a book which, if revised and to a certain extent rewritten, may become for all Englishmen and Americans the life of Voltaire.

Mr. Parton's defects are a conspicuous want of critical acumen, and a deficiency in that complete literary training and education which in the present day must be possessed by any man who wishes to take rank with such biographers as Strauss or Morley. Of his deficiency in critical thoroughness one example (which has already been pointed out by other reviewers) may suffice:

"Much ingenuity has been expended upon the derivation of the word *Voltaire*. A writer in *Le Derby*, a French sporting paper, has the honor of settling this unimportant controversy. While investigating, in 1869, the pedigree of a French horse, he came upon the records of a family named *Voltaire*, and the family proved to be ancestors of our prisoner's mother."

The solution here suggested of an unimportant but curious riddle may be the right one. The odd point is that Mr. Parton has apparently no authority for the statement he makes except the *Pull Mall Budget* of February 26, 1869. If the London newspaper does contain further references establishing the truth of a curious fact, why are they not given? If the *Pull Mall Budget* merely quotes from the columns of *Le Derby*,



what are we to say of a serious writer who supposes of a knotty question which has vexed men like Carlyle and Strauss by adopting a mere newspaper rumor? The answer is that Mr. Parton here betrays what may be inferred from the whole tone of his writing—that he has not formed a conception of the critical acumen and the laborious research which even on minor points ought to be displayed by any one who is worthy to labor in the field of historical biography.

This lack of critical acumen is closely connected with that deficiency in literary training which constitutes Mr. Parton's most serious fault. The very titles of his chapters, such as "The First Tiff," "The Rind of an Orange," "A Fire of Thirty-Sous Books," suggest a lack of good taste. But he may fairly enough plead that his taste, in common with that of writers as eminent as Mr. Motley, has been somewhat corrupted by Carlyle, and that he has a right to avail himself of the defence contained in the maxim *de gustibus non est disputandum*. A far more serious matter, which, it so happens, is also betrayed by one of his headings, is his curious infelicity, not to say inaccuracy, in the use of the English language. "The Lord of Ferney Communes" is the title at the head of one of the most amusing chapters in the work. We wonder whether any of our readers who do not happen to be acquainted with the incidents of Voltaire's life understand what this heading means. It signifies, or is meant to signify, "Voltaire takes the Communion." This is the interpretation of Mr. Parton's language. Unhappily, though his peculiar dialect is explainable, and may even be called intelligible, it has not the merit of being English. Nor is this a criticism aimed at an isolated verbal conceit. The pages of translation from the French, which form a valuable feature in Mr. Parton's work, are constantly marred by awkwardnesses of expression on the part of the translator.

It is, however, when our author has the misfortune to deal with Latin that his want of complete training appears in the strongest light. When an Italian guest is made to say to Voltaire, "Est ubi peccus," we of course assume that Mr. Parton's printer (who assuredly needs sharply looking after) is responsible for the extraordinary substitution of "peccus" for "peccas." But when we find the Latin sentence translated, "Whence is your fault?" we certainly begin to think that Mr. Parton has, to save himself trouble, used the help of some not very accurate translator. This, it will be said, is a mere verbal criticism. It were sufficient to reply that verbal inaccuracy is no slight defect in an author of high pretensions. But, unfortunately, laxity in the rendering of Latin has at least in one place betrayed Mr. Parton into one of the most curious blunders which it has ever been our fortune to notice. When Voltaire came to Cirey to commence the course of life in which Voltaire himself, Madame Du Châtelet, the Marquis, and ultimately Captain Saint-Lambert each played so singular a part, the poet wrote a Latin inscription commemorating the fact of his concealing himself in the country. The "Latin inscription, witty in itself," writes Mr. Parton, "is also amusing for its observance of the established decorum of the Château. The masculine gender is assigned to the 'lover of virtue, the despiser of the vulgar and the court, the cultivator of friendship who, withdrawn to his estate, was hiding a poet.' The world was invited to take note that it was a marquis who hid the poet, not Madame la Marquise:

*'Hic virtutis amans, vulgi contemptor et aulæ,  
Cultor amicitiæ vates latet abditus agro.'*

Need we point out to our readers that the masculine gender is assigned to the "lover of

virtue" because the lover of virtue is "the poet"—that is, Voltaire himself? Not a word is said in the lines cited either about the Marquis or about his wife. The whole of our author's far-fetched comment rests upon a mistranslation which certainly would bring condign punishment of some kind on any schoolboy in the upper form of a good school. We are absolutely unable to explain Mr. Parton's astounding slip. That he does not understand Latin is quite incredible; that, understanding Latin, he should have failed to see the meaning of the lines he cites is almost equally incredible. We must in fairness add that this is by far the worst blunder we have noticed in the book. It is, in one sense, a blunder of no special consequence, but it conclusively establishes the existence, to speak in the mildest terms, of a kind of literary laxity on Mr. Parton's part which, one might have thought, was sufficient to disqualify him from composing a work of half the excellence of the book which he has in fact produced.

For, whatever be the deficiencies in Mr. Parton's workmanship, his work has many great and rare merits. It is, in the first place, exactly what it terms itself—a genuine life of Voltaire, and not a critique upon the life and character of Voltaire. In this respect it differs entirely from the works of Strauss and of Morley. These writers have written essays which are each admirable in their way. One might say without much exaggeration that Strauss's 'Voltaire' was, as a set of lectures, a literary gem. It is precisely what lectures ought to be: it gives the main facts of Voltaire's life; it supplies a series of most interesting reflections upon his works, his opinions, his position in literature and in the history of thought; it stimulates, and is meant to stimulate, the hearers of the lecturer to study Voltaire's writings and life. But just because Strauss aimed at producing an admirable set of lectures on Voltaire, he did not aim at producing and did not produce a life of Voltaire. The same remark holds good in a great degree of Mr. Morley's very meritorious essay; his 'Voltaire' must be looked upon as one of a set of volumes which aim at giving the author's estimate of the intellectual movement in favor of free-thought which took place in France during the eighteenth century. And it is, we think, palpable that Mr. Morley, in the biographies of Voltaire, of Rousseau, and of Diderot, is far more intent on explaining, and to a certain extent defending, the moral and intellectual movement of which these writers were the leaders, than on giving a complete life of any one of the three celebrated Frenchmen.

Mr. Parton, on the other hand, is primarily and fundamentally a biographer. He of course must incidentally comment upon Voltaire's position and teaching, and his comments, when he makes them, are those of a liberal-minded man of sense; but his real object is not to tell his readers what Mr. Parton thinks about Voltaire, but to give them full, complete, ample details as to what Voltaire himself did, wrote, spoke, and thought during the course of a long existence, of which not one moment was wasted. Moreover, Mr. Parton has, while giving a complete life of the great freethinker, resolutely abstained from yielding to the temptation to produce that disgusting cross between biography and history known as a "life and times" of Voltaire. Mr. Parton's two volumes are long—some persons might say (though we certainly do not) that they are too long; they might be improved by compression; but they do not contain a page which is not strictly relevant to their subject. You are shown Voltaire, indeed, in every point of view—you see him at school, in the Bastille, as a man of business, as Chamberlain of Frederic the Great, as the defender of the oppressed, as a

country squire, as the triumphant man of letters, as a host at Ferney, as the leader of an assault upon the religious prejudices or principles of the age, and, in short, in almost every attitude in which he can conceivably be contemplated. But, while you are shown Voltaire by Mr. Parton in every possible light, you are never shown anything but Voltaire. The result of the conscientious tenacity with which Mr. Parton has clung to his subject is that he has written a book which, whatever its defects, makes the English and American public for the first time acquainted with Voltaire somewhat in the same sense in which they have long been acquainted with Johnson or Scott. They now can appreciate his boundless energy, his resource, his cunning, his audacity, his impatience, his hatred of his foes, his fervent loyalty to his friends, his astounding combination of vanity with dignity (or, at any rate, with the power to hold his own against men of superior position), and of a determination to make his fortune at all costs with an equally firm resolution to fight every kind of injustice to the death. Whoever wishes to see how much his real knowledge of Voltaire is increased by the mass of details collected together by Mr. Parton should study the chapter which treats of Voltaire as a man of business, or the chapters which describe Voltaire's private life at Ferney. No one, we are assured, can study these portions of Mr. Parton's book without coming to the conclusion that he has for the first time learned what kind of man Voltaire really was.

Nor is strict adherence to the duties of a biographer our author's sole merit. He shows throughout his work an amount of sound and calm judgment not always found in men who have devoted themselves to elucidating the career of an author who has been the object of more unmeasured praise, as well as of more unmeasured censure, than any other man of letters. Mr. Parton shows himself fully alive to Voltaire's foibles and vices; he does not conceal any of the traits in Voltaire's life or writings which are likely to offend the taste or the principles of the present generation. On the other hand, Mr. Parton recognizes the fact that Voltaire, whatever his faults, was a king of men, and an author engaged through life in a desperate struggle—mainly on behalf of justice—with classes and individuals who might, it seemed, at any time crush an assailant who wielded no arms but his pen. Mr. Parton exhibits that true impartiality which is an utterly distinct thing from indifference, and from that spurious sort of charity which consists in holding that, at every great crisis which divides men into different and hostile camps, both parties were in some sense in the right. Hence he explains better than any writer we have met with the true bearing and significance of the Voltairean "Écrasez l'infâme." He shows, as it seems to us, conclusively that, despite the Frenchman's follies and even want of principle, Frederic was assuredly not more sinned against than sinning, and by the mere ample and detailed statement of facts makes it clear that if Voltaire was reckless in his assault on religious dogmatism, his attack, savage as it might be, was assuredly not unprovoked. Mr. Parton has, in short, not indeed drawn a picture of Voltaire, but set before ordinary Englishmen and Americans the data from which they may draw something like a portrait for themselves. To have done this is sufficient to atone for the commission of numberless literary faults. Our earnest advice to Mr. Parton is that he should carefully revise the next edition of his work, and seriously reflect whether (considering the class of persons to whom the book is addressed) it would not be well to give the extracts from the works of French writers

in the original French. We still more earnestly advise our readers at once to get and read a book which has the one transcendent virtue of not containing a page which is not filled with matters of interest.

#### BEACONSFIELD'S POLITICS, WIT, AND WISDOM.

*Memorials of Lord Beaconsfield.* Reprinted from the *Standard*. With Portrait. London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1881.

*Wit and Wisdom of Benjamin Disraeli, Earl of Beaconsfield.* Collected from his writings and speeches. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1881.

WHEN 'Endymion' appeared we ventured to express in these columns the opinion that the book, notwithstanding the fact that it contained some witty epigram and shrewd observation, was as a whole a very slight performance. The temporary interest excited by it was produced in a great measure by the author's peculiar career and brilliant political position, by the familiarity which these were assumed to have given him with English society, and by the fact that well-known characters were popularly supposed to be introduced into the story. As time goes on the peculiar features of his career must inevitably fade out of the public recollection, and it has already begun to dawn upon the mind of the novel-reading public that, so far as they put any faith in the accuracy of Lord Beaconsfield's descriptions of English society, they were, in plain English, egregiously taken in. That his deception of the public on this subject should have lasted as long as it was profitable to him that it should last, is a singular illustration of his constant good luck; for there is no such mystery about English society as to prevent any one who desires to do so from making himself sufficiently master of the subject to tell the difference between true and false pictures of it. The social world of Thackeray's earlier novels is the social world of Disraeli's as well, and Trollope, by common consent, shows us with minute fidelity the social world of his later period. Any one who examines such books as 'Henrietta Temple' or 'Endymion' can see at a glance that Lord Beaconsfield's opportunities as a social observer were entirely wasted, so far as the public are concerned. He introduces us to lords and ladies, kings and queens, mansions and palaces, and nobody has ever accused him of stinting his descriptive powers when he lets us into the secrets of high life, but the high life, when we examine the details, is too suspiciously like "society" as it exists in the minds of young children, and sometimes even of nursery maids, cooks, and servants, to be of any permanent value. There is not, and never was, any such society as that represented in these novels, and to call them romances only removes the difficulty one single step. Romance furnishes an atmosphere of its own, different from that of real life, but easily recognized when we meet it. A romantic writer deals with sentiments and ideas elevated above the ordinary level of common life, and he is at liberty to select for the material of his plot incidents of a sufficiently unusual and exciting character to make the elevation of the treatment seem natural. There are two qualities which romance cannot have—prosaism and vulgarity—and both of them have from the first conspicuously marked Lord Beaconsfield's stories. If there is anything flat in fiction, it is the career of the hero of 'Endymion,' whose life from first to last presents no feature of interest except a constant success, in which there is not enough luck to excite our curiosity, and no struggle with fortune to excite our sympathy. Of vulgarity the

later novels present more glaring instances than the earlier, but all of them are pervaded more or less by that debased admiration of display, in clothes, in houses, in ornaments, in manners, in the conduct of life itself, which is the sure test of a vulgar imagination.

A man of imagination Lord Beaconsfield certainly was, as he was also a man of wit. These qualities would probably lead him to regard with some amusement the memorial performances contained in the first of the volumes whose titles have been given above. The *Standard's* memoir of the Prime Minister makes him out not merely what everybody must admit that he was, a man of great cleverness as a parliamentary politician, who managed to use one of the great parties of England as a tool for his own advancement with complete success, but as a Tory reformer, who early in life grasped the true conservative theory of the British Constitution and devoted his life to educating the Tories up to it. The writer of the memoir undertakes, as several Tory writers have done before, to explain what this theory was, and as usual he makes very funny work of it. He says that there cannot be the "slightest doubt" that the victory of the Tories in 1874 was largely due to "the principles which he had promulgated exactly thirty years before" in 'Coningsby' and 'Sybil.' Considering that in the next sentence it is candidly admitted that "the Toryism which was presented to the world through the medium of these brilliant fictions was an ideal Toryism, and could hardly have been reproduced in modern England any more than Plato's republic could have been reproduced in ancient Greece," it is at first rather puzzling to the reader to guess what the causal connection between these brilliant fictions and the defeat of the Liberals in 1874 was; still more so as we are next told that this Toryism was "founded partly on a study of Lord Bolingbroke, without due allowance being made for the difference between parliamentary government in the reign of Queen Victoria and parliamentary government in the reign of George II." Bolingbroke "saw only the abuses which flourished under the system of Walpole," and as he "could not foresee the glories of Chatham and his famous son," he very naturally attributed these abuses to the Revolution, and "turned for a remedy to the system which presented the greatest contrast to it—the monarchy, namely, of the Tudors and the Plantagenets"; a revival of which in the middle of the eighteenth century, our publicist thinks, "had not become absolutely impossible." In 1844 and 1845, however, he admits that it had become out of the question, and "the weak point in 'Coningsby' and 'Sybil' was that they vaguely suggested the restoration of such a polity as the remedy for prevailing evils." Thus far we do not seem to have made much of an advance towards a comprehension of the connection between the Tory victory of 1874 and the Tory theories of 'Coningsby' and 'Sybil'; but the next sentence makes it delightfully clear. There was a "more important part of the theory"—"the doctrine, namely, that Toryism and not Radicalism ought to be the popular political creed of this country," and that this part of it "was capable of being adapted to modern politics Mr. Disraeli has himself shown." This is of course true. He has shown it just as often as the Tories in the House of Commons or out of it have had more votes than the Liberals, just as Mr. Gladstone has proved the truth of the equally important but converse proposition, that Radicalism and not Toryism ought to be the popular creed of the country, whenever the Liberals have had more votes than the Tories.

It is impossible to recall the connection between the Conservative party and Lord Beacons-

field without a feeling somewhat like the pity which in private life the spectacle of a respectable, simple-minded country family in the hands of a clever and unscrupulous adventurer excites. At the opening of his career he found the Tories in a position of great danger, but according to his own account full of brilliant opportunities; at its close he left them in a plight out of which their leaders profess to see no road. And certainly no one ever did more to help them on the downward path than Lord Beaconsfield. His mission from the first seemed to be to make Conservatism ridiculous, to make Conservatives do as many ridiculous things as possible, and to persuade them that this was the way to redeem their fortunes. And he succeeded, too, in a most astonishing way. Even the Young England creed, which was too ridiculous for sensible Tories when its inventor first produced it, strikes the author of the memoir before us as having had great merits. With a touch of that fond regret which often lingers in the minds of the honest family at the recollection of the brilliant ideas of the vanished charlatan, he insists that "its sentiment was true. With much that was extravagant on the surface, the fundamental ideas of the Young England creed touched the heart of the rising generation. Men began to feel that the relations between sovereign and subject, between landlord and tenant, between gentle and simple, between priest and parishioner, might be beautified and sweetened. As far as the movement aimed at a revival merely of ancient customs, it was harmless and ineffective, and in some measure was laughed down. But the spirit which those customs had once represented was awakened from a long sleep, and it is impossible to deny that the relations between the different orders of society have benefited by the revival."

Now the social development of England during the last fifty years has been in nothing more remarkable than in the progress that has been made towards completely breaking down the semi-feudal sentiments between the different orders of society which it was the object of the Young England party to revive. For the old feeling that tenants owed their landlords not merely rent, but a loyal respect and deference as well; that religious submission was due the parson apart from any question as to the value of his character or teaching; that social respect was the right of the squire without enquiry into his respectability, has been substituted to a very remarkable degree the modern rationalistic, democratic jealousy of all rights which can show nothing more than tradition or position to rest upon. The sentiment growing out of status has pretty much died out, and there is nothing to take its place but the purely commercial spirit against which the Young England movement was directed. Disraeli himself, as he grew older, was far too clever not to see that a revival of feudal sentiment was an absurdity, and the real problem before the Conservatives was to find a new and modern sentiment as a basis of union between the aristocracy and the masses. He thought that he had found this in imperialism, no doubt being misled by the example of countries in which the spread of democratic ideas had ended in despotism. It would be curious to analyze the causes which seem to make any such political metamorphosis impossible in England; but we have only space now to call attention to the fact that neither the semi-feudal vagaries of his earlier days, nor the imperialistic tinsel of his later policy, ever entirely lost him the confidence of the Tories, who, even now that an English land bill and the disestablishment of the Church are agitated, and all talk of Conservative obstinacy is met by threats of abolishing the House of Lords, do not seem to



see how much the brilliant tricks and devices and political theories of their late leader have helped them on in the fatal road to destruction.

The anthology contained in the second of the above volumes is rather voluminous, for it comprises not only the epigrams, apophthegms, and *pensées* of the late Prime Minister, which really constitute his most valuable permanent contribution to literature, but also long extracts from his novels, apparently selected with the idea of showing his opinions on the subjects to which they relate. If this was the idea of the collector, it was a mistake, for most of the opinions expressed are not those of the author, but of fictitious characters, for whose ideas he certainly cannot be held responsible. It would be as easy to attempt to get at the opinions of Molière or Sardou by extracts from their plays as at Disraeli's opinions through the dialogues in his novels. It is true that from some of the earlier ones a sort of prophecy of his later Eastern policy may be gathered; but we fancy a little ingenuity only would have been required to make them seem equally prophetic had the ultimate result been something quite different from what actually happened. Had Egypt been taken instead of Cyprus, and "peace with honor" been secured by a bloody war instead of a Berlin conference, passages foreshadowing these events might probably have readily been found in "Coningsby" and "Alroy." However that may be, the collection has not been made with much skill, as one or two extracts taken at random will show. It is divided by subjects arranged alphabetically, beginning with "Ability" and ending with "Youth." The book opens with an extract from a speech made at Newport Pagnell in 1874, in which Lord Beaconsfield said: "I pride myself upon recognizing and upholding ability in every party and wherever I meet it." Waiving all questions of the truth of this statement, there is certainly nothing so original about it that it deserves preservation. Under the head of "Action" we find a quotation from "Lothair": "The Standing Committee of the Holy Alliance of Peoples all rose, although they were extreme Republicans, when the General entered. Such is the magical influence of a man of action over men of the pen and the tongue." This is certainly not very witty, and if it is supposed to record the result of extensive observation of mankind, it is of comparatively little value. Everybody knows that men of action do exercise a powerful influence upon the imagination of men "of the pen and the tongue," and the statement about the committee, from its exaggerated emphasis, is rather flat than impressive. The next is better, from its expression being good—"Action must be founded on knowledge," though in various other forms it is as old as man himself. Under the head of "Advice" we find that Miss Arundel in "Lothair" is authority for the proposition that "advice is not a popular thing to give," and, strange to say, Miss Arundel's feeling on the subject was shared by the gifted author; for at Aylesbury in 1865 he boldly announced that he did "not like giving advice," because it involves "unnecessary responsibility under any circumstances." Under "Age" we find him declaring in 1864 that "the characteristic of the present age is craving credulity," though in 1873 he had come to regard it as chiefly marked by "the spirit of equality." Under "Americans" "Lothair" yields the following nugget: "American ladies—I can never make out what they believe or what they disbelieve. It is a sort of confusion between Mrs. Beecher Stowe and the Fifth Avenue Congregation and Barnum"—but this again is not anything that the author himself says. Under the head of "Poetry" we find verses which carry

us back to the period when every lady had an album containing lines written by the gentlemen of her acquaintance, which not infrequently afterwards found their way to an immortal obscurity in the pages of the "Book of Beauty" and similar publications. It was hardly fair for the present collector to drag out the verses beginning—

"Tell me the star from which she fell,"  
Oh! name the flower  
From out whose wild and perfumed bell,  
At witching hour,  
Sprang forth this fair and fairy maiden  
Like a bee with honey laden."

—hardly fair either to Lord Beaconsfield or the public, with whom almost any memorial would be more likely to keep the recollection of him a kindly and agreeable one than his poetical efforts.

But although the book as a whole is a failure, the reader will find it worth looking over for the many epigrams and maxims, some of them very familiar, some of them, to us at least, absolutely new, that really show what Lord Beaconsfield's wit was at its best. "Apologies only account for that which they do not alter" is even better than "qui s'excuse s'accuse," for it contains a neat and true explanation of the grounds of the maxim, which the other almost hides behind a play on words. "Next to knowing when to seize an opportunity, the most important thing in life is to know when to forego an advantage," is from "The Infernal Marriage," a little-known early satire, full of witty observation and turns of expression. Life is said in "Tancred" to be "monotonous only to the monotonous"—an amusing idea amusingly expressed, whatever may be thought of its truth. "Those who have known grief seldom seem sad," may not be altogether true, but it contains an amount of truth which to many persons will make it seem at first absolutely so. We have no space for further quotations. It is undoubtedly as a wit, and as a shrewd observer of the tangled skein of motives which guide men in society, that Lord Beaconsfield will be hereafter remembered, when his astounding "pictures of English society" and his "statesmanship" have been long forgotten.

#### GOOD MANNERS.

*Social Etiquette and Home Culture.* The Glass of Fashion: A Universal Handbook of Social Etiquette and Home Culture for Ladies and Gentlemen. With Copious and Practical Hints upon the Manners and Ceremonies of every Relation in Life, at Home, in Society, and at Court. Interspersed with numerous anecdotes. By the Lounger in Society. [Franklin Square Library.] New York: Harper & Brothers.

THIS book by no means confines itself to the discussion of the matters suggested by its title. The author has touched upon a wide variety of topics connected not only with good breeding, but with the conduct of life in general. Precisely what "home culture" means may of course be differently decided by different people. But the "Lounger in Society" certainly takes a very wide view of his field when he makes it include advice to ladies and gentlemen on amateur theatricals, on marriage, articulation in singing, on flirtations and proposals at balls, on leards, on the furniture of bedrooms, on gastronomy, on tooth-powders and tooth-brushes, on bathing, on cornet-playing, on cosmetics, on Rowland's "incomparable Macassar" and Hapgood's "Nutritive Pomade." Much as we should like to do so, we cannot follow the Lounger through the long list of subjects on which the time and thought evidently devoted to them entitle him to an attentive hearing, and therefore restrict what we have to say to what gives his book its chief interest—that part of it which relates to the laws of good breeding.

In most books of etiquette, a comical effect is produced by the fact that while the fundamental assumption of the author is that his readers are persons of refinement and delicacy of feeling, a large part of his advice and exhortation seems to imply a belief that the same persons are innately vulgar and hopelessly ignorant of all the usages of decent society. A very amusing instance of this last sort of advice may be found in the present volume, in a quotation from a manual of etiquette which teaches how to acquire good habits at table, by a running and vigorous correction of supposed faults, in the following manner. The imaginary pupil being ready for the meal, the master discourses as follows:

"The first thing you do," he says, "is to sit down. Stop, sir!" he continues; "pray do not *cram yourself* into the table that way. Come, no nonsense; sit up, if you please! I can't have your fine head of hair filling a side-dish on my table. You must not bury your face in the plate; you came to show it, and it ought to be alive. . . . Your soup you eat with a spoon. Yes, that will do; but I beg you will not make that odious noise in drinking your soup. It is louder than a dog lapping water; and a cat would be quite gentle to it. Fish must never be touched with a knife. Take a fork in the right, and a small piece of bread in the left hand. Good! but—! Oh, that is atrocious! of course you must not swallow the bones; but you should rather do so than spit them out in that way. Put up your napkin like this, and land the tailbone on your plate. Don't rub your bread in the sauce, my good man, *nor go propping about* after the shrimps or oysters therein. . . . That is the fourth time wine has been handed to you, and I am sure you have had enough. Decline this time, if you please. Decline that dish, too. Are you going to eat of everything that is handed? I pity you if you do. No, you must not ask for more cheese; and you must eat it with your fork. Break the rusk with your fingers. Good! You are drinking a glass of old port. Do not quaff it down at a gulp in that way. Never drink a whole glassful of anything at once."

It is not easy to believe that this pupil would be likely to appreciate delicate shades of etiquette or politeness. He would have to confine himself for the time being to elementary matters, like getting his food properly into his mouth and eating without making odious noises. Maxims and advice addressed to him seem inevitably rather wasted on ladies and gentlemen. There is less of this in the book before us than in most volumes of the kind, but the author does not altogether avoid the danger of seeming to assume that his readers can at one and the same time be complete barbarians and ready learners of what society considers "good form." In his last chapter he has collected some two hundred maxims upon manners, which constitute a sort of summary of what he has to say on the subject. They are generally very good; but it is hard to believe that any one who stands in need of maxim 33, "In passing from the drawing room to the dining room remember that it is the lady who takes precedence, not the gentleman," will be able to grasp the force of maxim 9, "Never give letters of introduction unless you are prepared to be responsible for the persons to whom they are given." Maxim 49, "Never use your knife to convey your food to your mouth under any circumstances," is a sound one, but upon a person who still considers the question as open to argument maxim 50, "If at dinner you are requested to help any one to sauce, do not pour it over the meat or vegetables, but on one side," will be wasted. On the whole, however, as we have said, the author makes this sort of mistake far less than most of his rivals.

Another peculiarity of books of etiquette and manners is the fact that they always contain some advice of an extraordinarily novel and unexpected character relating to matters about which one would suppose there could be no difference of opinion. Of this again we have some curious instances in the volume before us.

According to maxim 10, "the holder of a letter of introduction should not take it in person, but should send it with his card of address," for the reason that the bearer of the letter is bound to give the receiver an "option" to call upon him or take no notice of him whatever. The existence of this "option" will be news, at least, to a large body of long-enduring receivers of introduced foreigners in this country, and they will be glad to act upon it, too, if it can be established that it is the fixed rule in England or any other foreign country. Maxim 52 insists that we must "eat peas with a dessert-spoon, and curry also." This no doubt would be a pretty custom to introduce, and would tend to diminish the pressure on the family fork reserves, which the modern custom of eating ice cream with a fork has so greatly increased, besides which it would furnish an opportunity for much foolish conversation and many flat jokes—always a desideratum at table; but where is it a generally recognized usage in society already? Maxim 53, "As a general rule, in helping any one at table, never use a knife where you can use a spoon," we do not understand. Even a person addicted to the habit of eating peas with his knife could not help them with a knife; on the other hand, it is physically possible to help many kinds of cheese with a spoon, but how seldom it is resorted to. Knives, after all, must in the long run be generally used for cutting, and there is little reason to fear that the habit of "helping" with them will ever become common.

The author devotes a good deal of space to the discussion of a matter which has troubled many other enquirers into the mystery of manners—the question as to what the fundamental constituents of good manners are. There is, indeed, little common agreement as to this beyond what seems to be a generally admitted axiom of breeding, that the most important thing is a willingness to sacrifice one's self in the interest of social ends. Swift lays it down that "good manners is the art of making those people easy with whom we converse," which obviously cannot be done by self-assertion. Lord Chatham defined politeness as benevolence in trifles, and insisted upon the necessity of "sacrificing ourselves" to "the convenience and pleasure of others." Our author, however, goes further than this, for he declares that the "whole secret of good manners" is contained in the divine command, "Do unto others as you would that others should do unto you."

"From this point of view politeness becomes a virtue, and a brilliant one; for it is nothing less than a form of self-denial. You make way for this person, you fall behind that, you give up your seat to a third, because it will please those persons; therefore you consult their pleasure rather than your own. Carry this motive into all your daily conduct, and see how it will be elevated and transfigured. The noblest charity, the loftiest self-denial, the truest generosity, these, we see, centre in and are bound up with good manners."

If this were strictly true, Christianity and civ-

ility would be synonymous terms, which cannot be the case, for there are and always have been large numbers of excellent Christians in the world, who not only have no manners, but who regard breeding as a worldly affair with which they have nothing to do, while on the other hand the possession of fine manners has at no time been taken to be a necessary indication of a Christian spirit. This fact has indeed been always a puzzle to many good people, who have been unable to reconcile themselves to the idea of such an apparently unselfish thing as good manners being so often associated with a bad life. It is easy to show, however, that it is at least entirely erroneous to suppose politeness a branch of the moral law. There is nothing in the law of good manners to prevent you from cutting an acquaintance in the street who has offended you, though this may cause him pain, and the pleasure you derive from it is intensely selfish. Until very recently, any one who wished to retain his standing in society as a gentleman, was compelled by public opinion to fight with any one whom he had insulted, just as the insulted person was compelled to make him fight. Even to-day the fact that a man has fought a duel, while it may expose him to arrest, is in no part of the world regarded as a social fault, which it certainly would be if the rules which govern intercourse in society were founded on the principles of Christian morality.

The main difference between Christian self-denial and the sort of self-denial which good manners calls for is one of motive. In one case the motive is religious, in the other purely worldly. In one case selfishness is abandoned altogether, in the other it is subjected to discipline at one point in order that at another it may have its reward. In England, where strict precedence is observed, a person of lower rank goes in to dinner behind a person of higher rank simply because the custom has been found to wound the self-love of all concerned less than any other would: a fixed order prevents unseemly quarrels, and people get along with each other better for it. The person who has to yield the *pas*, however, does it in a spirit of enlightened epicurean self-interest, not in that of Christian unselfishness.

The fancy that good manners may be made out to be a branch of the moral law, though not a distinctly modern idea, has been greatly promoted in the present century by the advance made in simplicity at the expense of "shams" and conventionalities. At the beginning of this century all human intercourse was regulated by a highly artificial system of etiquette, which gave no room for the expression of natural feeling, and was undoubtedly to a great extent a hollow mockery. The relations of parent and child, husband and wife, master and servant, lovers, as well as the details of dress, conversation, and carriage, were all governed by a code of great complexity and intricacy, a minute ritual, the observance of which at all

points was essential. Only persons of good birth could lay claim to a full knowledge of it, for its voluminous artificiality made an early education the only safe road to a familiarity with its rules. The great mass of mankind knew no more about it than they did about the dead languages. It was essentially a body of aristocratic tradition. At this period to have seriously argued that the province of Christian morals was conferrable with that of good breeding would never have occurred to any one. No amount of Christian morality would supply the place of a knowledge of etiquette, and the laws of etiquette were clearly based on a realistic view of existing society, while those of Christian morals were based on an ideal view of it as it ought to exist.

But modern democracy, as it has broken down political barriers, has also swept away social distinctions, and has made an aristocratic code of etiquette seem ridiculous. The inheritors of the old traditions as to "fine manners" have been gradually thrust into the background, and as a theory of some kind is always necessary to support any innovation, the modern democratic theory of manners has been invented—that good breeding is nothing more than being good and kind, and gentle, and amiable, and telling the truth, and giving way to your neighbor. It must be admitted that in a democratic country any one who carries this theory into practice will probably come nearer being himself in accord with the requirements of the existing code of good manners than there was ever a chance of his doing at any previous period in the history of the world; still, as we have said, morality and good manners have not become one and the same thing. Democracy is the foe of conventionalities in form, and in the last fifty years it has succeeded in driving conventionality out of society to an extent which, as we look back, seems almost incredible. For the old formalism has been substituted an easy-going, good-humored *bonhomie*, which is no doubt the only possible basis for modern society as it exists, with its curious medley of refinement and vulgarity, of intelligence and ignorance. But we have not yet reached a time when we can go to church to find out how we ought to "behave in society," nor when we can find the moral law between the covers of manuals of good manners.

#### BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, Prof. R. Fichte. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. \$1.25.  
Barrett, J. Edwin Forrest. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.  
Boulger, D. C. History of China. Vol. I. London: W. H. Allen & Co.  
Brooks, Rev. P. The Candle of the Lord, and Other Sermons. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. \$1.75.  
Byerly, Prof. W. E. Elements of the Integral Calculus. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. \$2.30.  
Cartwright, Julia. Mantegna and Francia. New York: Scribner & Welford. \$1.25.  
Chatterbox, Junior. New York: R. Worthington. \$1.  
Cox, E. Manual of Trade-Mark Cases. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$6.50.  
Diaz, Mrs. A. M. King Grimalkin and Pusyanilla. Boston: D. Lethrop & Co. \$1.25.  
Farrier, C. S. History of Sculpture, Painting, and Architecture. Topical Lessons. Chicago: Townsend MacCoun.

#### A BEAUTIFUL GIFT-BOOK.

### Our Familiar Songs,

AND

#### THOSE WHO MADE THEM.

More than Three Hundred Standard Songs of the English-speaking Race, arranged with Piano Accompaniment, and preceded by Sketches of the Writers and Histories of the Songs. By Helen Kendrick Johnson. 8vo, \$6.

"In all respects of size, elegance, copiousness, and curious detail, presents almost as much of a contrast to an ordinary song-book, however good,

as a centennial exhibition to an old-fashioned country fair. . . . We have turned the pages of this unique and beautiful volume with delight. . . . Here is a library of the best music for the household. We may return to it again for some of its extremely interesting personal and literary particulars."—LITERARY WORLD.

### The Wandering Jew.

An account of the Legend in various places and at all times. By Moncure D. Conway. 12mo, \$1.50.

"The legend . . . the expression of

that undying popular hatred of the Jewish race which found vent in the terrible persecutions of the Middle Ages, and which is again showing itself in the Judenhetze which disgraces modern Germany. . . . Mr. Moncure D. Conway, a writer who has earned for himself the right to speak for an expert on questions of folk-lore and demonology, . . . deserves our gratitude for having given a graphic and exhaustive account of this ancient and most curious myth."—LONDON SATURDAY REVIEW.

HENRY HOLT & CO., New York.



